GUIDANCE
in the Modern School

Dryden Press Professional Books in Education

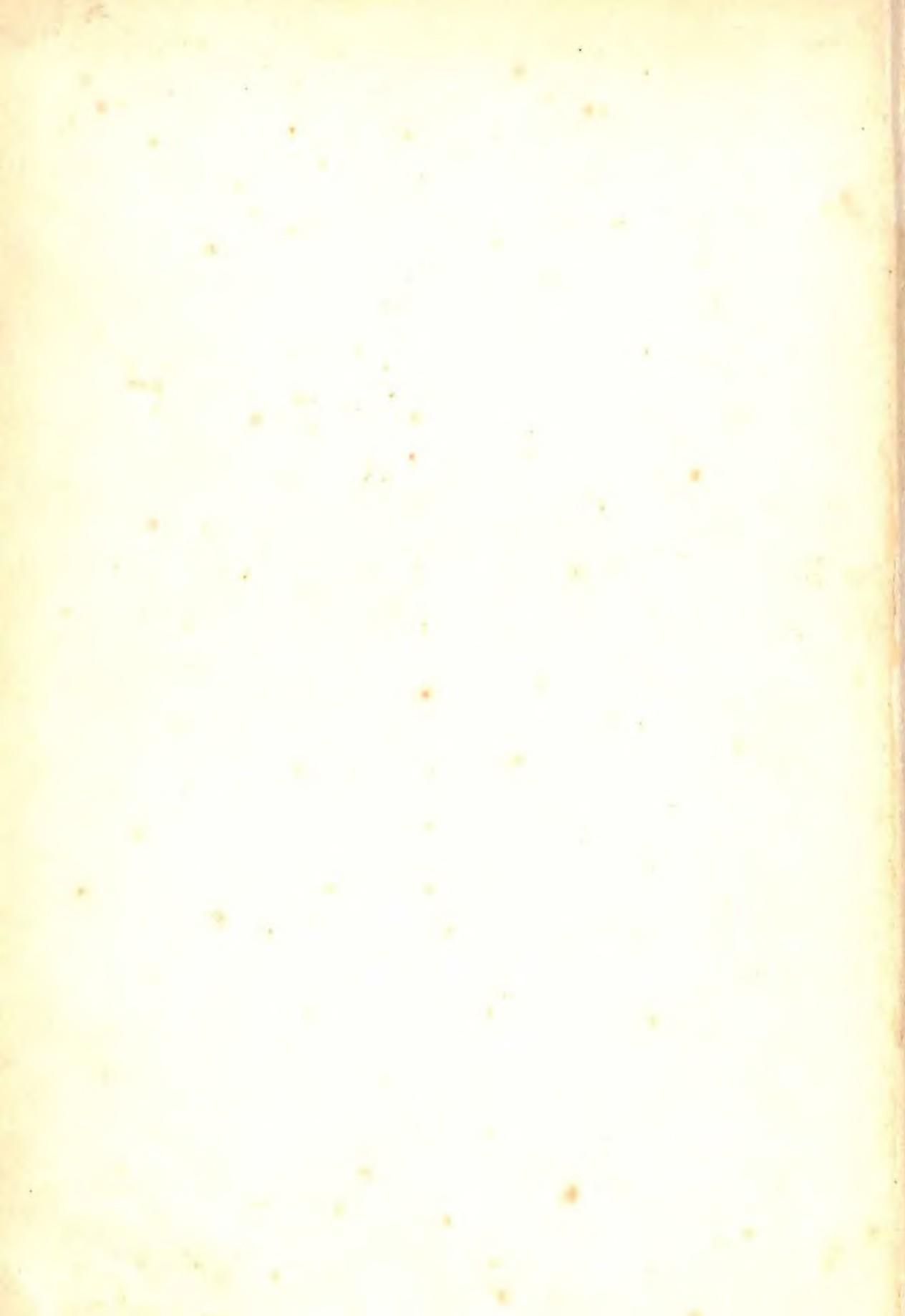# HENRY B. McDANIEL

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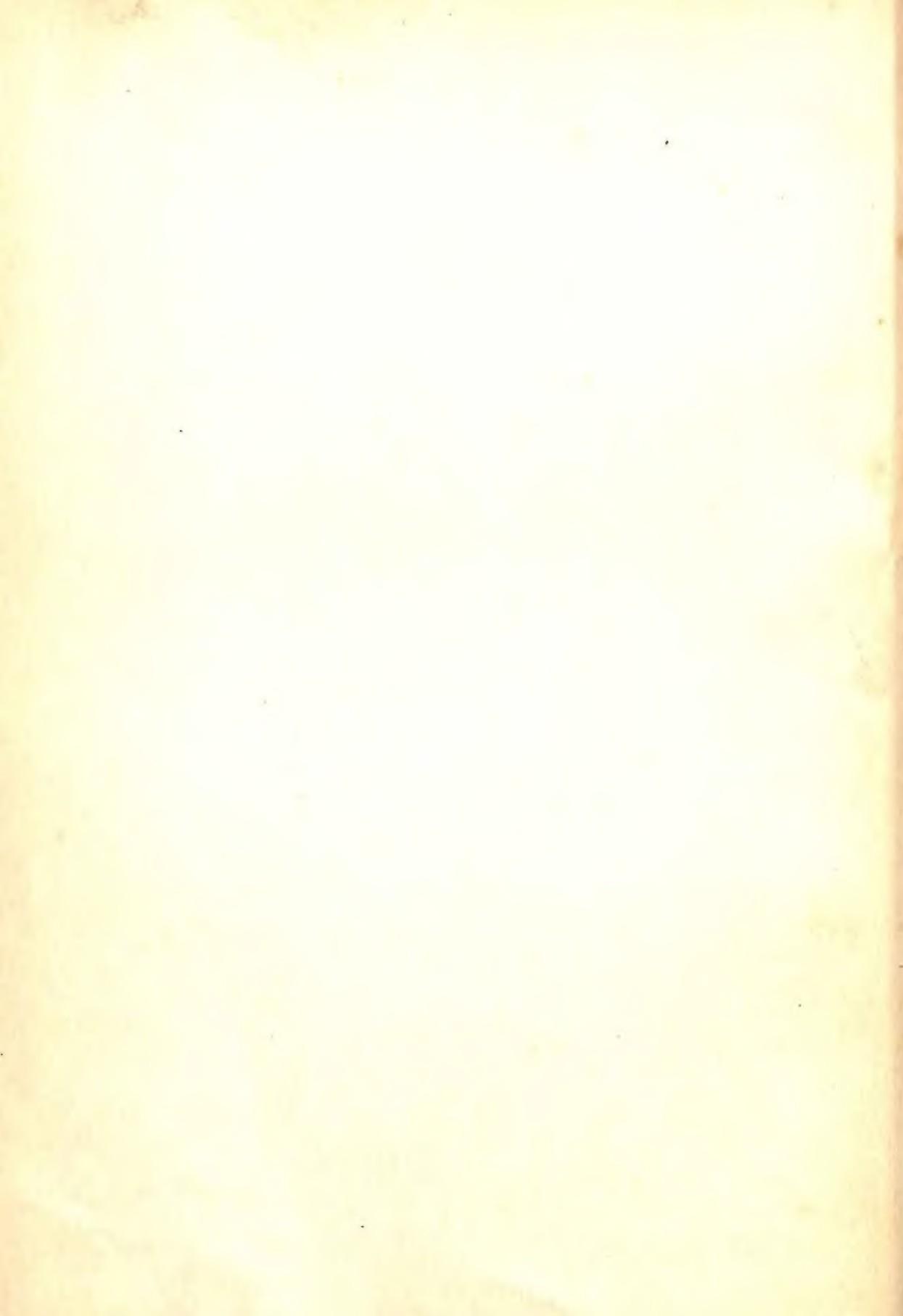# UIDANCE

in the Modern School

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Preface

No EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT in the past quarter of a century has pro-
duced more "tangents" than the field of guidance. After making a rather
thorough canvass of the literature, a graduate student observed: "Guidance,
or counseling, or student-personnel work, is one of the most discussed and
least defined areas of professional work. Is it education? Is it psychology?
Is it social service? There is need for yet another book in this field." There
is need for a treatise which brings together the various contributions to and
developments in the field and which outlines a comprehensive, experience-
based program of guidance services for the modern school.

There are many books on "principles" of guidance, yet the student has
real difficulty in ferreting out a solid philosophical foundation for guidance
services. There are many books on counseling, yet the reader must choose
his own "school" in this field. There are books on tests and testing, on child
development and youth problems, on occupations and the problems of voca-
tional choice—books which deal with delimited areas only. There are books
on administration of a guidance program which give no clear notion of what
is to be administered. There are books which insist that the counselor is a
teacher and that "every teacher is a counselor." Other writers see the coun-
selor as a psychologist or a social worker. For some, guidance is a detached
clinical service; for others, an all-school service.

More than a quarter of a century of work in this field—as a teacher of
young people, as a counselor, and as a teacher of teachers—has given the
writer opportunity for observing and testing ideas and practices from many
sources. It is his firm belief that there is emerging from the many contribu-
tions to the field a workable pattern of guidance principles and practices.
A *functional* guidance program is a whole-school program; it involves the
teacher, the administrator, the specialist, and the parent. It belongs to no
one discipline, draws upon no one body of knowledge, gives allegiance to
no one "school" of theory. The modern school guidance program is truly
eclectic. It has profited from the work of dedicated followers of many
disciplines.

This book deals with the four aspects of guidance which the writer sees as critical areas of study for the counselor in the modern school, whether elementary, secondary, or collegiate. These areas are the organization of the school for identifying and serving the needs of young people, the systematic study of the individual, the informational program, and the principles and practices of counseling. *Guidance in the Modern School* is intended to serve as a basic text for those entering the field.

G. A. Shaftel, an educational writer who has worked extensively in the field of human relations, collaborated in the preparation of this book.

HENRY BONNER McDANIEL

Stanford, California
March 1956

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I believe there may be some things that some people may know for certain, but I also believe that knowable things are not what matters most to any human being. A good mathematician may know the truth about numbers, and a good engineer may know how to make physical forces serve his purposes. But the engineer and the mathematician are human beings first—so for them, as well as for me, what matters most is not one's knowledge and skill, but one's relations with other people. We do not all have to be engineers or mathematicians, but we do all have to deal with other people. And these relations of ours with each other, which are the really important things in life, are also the really difficult things, because it is here that the question of right and wrong comes in.

I believe we have no certain knowledge of what is right and wrong; and, even if we had, I believe we should find it just as hard as ever to do something that we knew for certain to be right in the teeth of our personal interests and inclinations. Actually, we have to make the best judgment we can about what is right, and then we have to bet on it by trying to make ourselves act on it, without being sure about it.

<div style="text-align:right">

ARNOLD J. TOYNBEE, *This I Believe* (New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc.)

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From the point of view of the psychiatrist, the only conceivable primary aim of education should be to prepare the individual for social living. Training for culture, college, or a livelihood—important as each may be—are only single aspects of much larger opportunities.

Undoubtedly my vision is colored by my daily life work of seeing an unending stream of people who are afraid, distraught, anxious, tense, and lonely, for all their "education." Many of these people have learned a good deal about making a living, but all of them have failed to make a life.

At present not more than a small percentage of our school systems have crystallized their thinking about mental health as a major objective. Yet unless school administrators agree that the main objective of education's efforts is to help the individual develop a healthy personality, the great multitude of teachers cannot go ahead on their own.

<div style="text-align:right">

WILLIAM C. MENNINGER, from an address to the High-School Principals' Section of the National Education Association Convention in Milwaukee, February 23, 1954.

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Part One

MEETING THE NEED
FOR GUIDANCE

· 1 ·

An Overview and an Outlook

IN ITS EARLY DAYS, guidance was concerned almost exclusively with job placement for the young adult and the student leaving school to go to work. Originally, therefore, guidance was a postschool activity. In time, however, as it became apparent that it was not enough merely to find almost any job for a student, guidance began to focus on locating the most *appropriate* job for the individual—the job in which he would be most successful and happy. Doing this, of course, involved discovering what work the student could do best and what job opportunities were open to him.

Lack of this knowledge results at times in vocational misfits and in waste of real ability. Examples can be found in any community which lacks adequate educational facilities. The young man who fills your tank with gasoline in a service station and seems unhappy with his job may have very good reason for feeling frustrated if he happens to have fine musical training but can find no orchestra or dance band in his small home community to

employ him. The young insurance salesman who aspires to become office manager but lacks the ability to handle actuarial data and the administrative finesse to direct salesmen and office workers is likewise going to meet disappointment. And the young woman who loves literature but works as a store clerk to support her mother may also be blocked from realizing her ambitions to become an editor or a college instructor by the lack of money to go to a university. Such cases illustrate typical needs: The first young man needs a realistic appraisal of job opportunities in his community. The insurance salesman needs to learn what his aptitudes and capabilities really are. The young woman needs guidance and information on educational opportunities for high-school students with talent and no money. In varying degrees, most young people require such help, and an adequate guidance program aids them in securing the information about themselves and the fields of work open to them that will enable them to plan their life careers sensibly.

Development of The Guidance Movement

In the beginning, the purpose of guidance was to collect and teach occupational information; many schools established required courses on occupations, and textbooks were developed for these courses. In time it became evident that such courses must not be haphazard but must be structured in a logical and meaningful manner. Occupational planning required educational planning; accordingly, not only were courses increased to provide a wider range of choice, but counseling was provided: guidance workers took pains to help young people to discover which vocational possibilities held most promise for them.

During the past half century, much attention was turned upon the investigation of individual differences among people. In many American communities, the school population contains the whole spectrum of economic and ethnic backgrounds. The result is that many class groups are composed of young people with I.Q.'s that range from 60 to 160, with several mentally retarded individuals at one extreme and several gifted children at the other. Some of the pupils' parents may have inherited wealth, some may be lawyers and doctors and college professors, some store keepers, some Negro and Mexican farm workers; and some children may come from an orphanage. In this situation, teachers and counselors must deal with a wide variety of aptitudes, interests, and capabilities, of aspirations and opportunities. Naturally, the teaching process is complicated by such breadth of individual differences; the instructor must have techniques and energy for keeping gifted

pupils from boredom and retarded pupils from frustration, for meeting the needs of the culturally deprived youngsters of foreign or poverty-stricken backgrounds who suffer from language and social handicaps, for preventing her own usually middle-class likes and dislikes from affecting her attitude toward individual pupils. Unless the teacher does meet this range of challenges, various of her charges will suffer, and whatever promise of achievement they possess will be diminished. Over and beyond the teaching process, the counseling process too must be adequate to meet the multitude of individual differences.

Tests and measurement techniques were developed and put to use in an effort to answer two basic guidance questions:

(1) *What are the individual's characteristics?*
(2) *What personality traits and characteristics hold most promise for success in a given occupation?*

As knowledge in these areas grew, it became possible for guidance workers to help pupils to select occupations in which they were likely to find satisfaction and success.

Along with these studies of the individual, investigations were made of groups, of the social problems of youth, of environmental conditions which influence individual adjustment; and attempts were made in the schools to provide group experiences which would decrease social tensions and improve the development of social skills. Gradually a shift of emphasis occurred. The counselor became concerned with his client not just as a student who was learning well and who promised to become an efficient worker, but as a person: vocational counseling was modified into individual counseling.

Today guidance is concerned with the individual as a child, a youth, and an adult who is developing interests and abilities, setting goals and plans, meeting personal and social problems, and eventually emerging from school as a citizen and worker. The chief purpose of guidance is to give the individual whatever help he needs at any point in this development. And it is in recognition of this present emphasis that the term *counselor* is applied to the guidance worker and the process of working with the individual is called *counseling*. Recent research findings suggest that there are unique growth-producing elements in this counseling process; that there is a close relationship between counseling and learning; that counseling *is* growth. More thorough understanding of self makes for increased maturity; and the individual, as a result of counseling to solve an immediate problem, is better able to solve future problems. At the same time, in helping individuals, counseling has contributed much to the development of the modern program of secondary education and occupies a place of established importance within it.

Guidance has been called by various terms at different times. Among them were guidance services, pupil- or student-guidance services, school-personnel work, student-personnel services, and pupil-personnel services. Recently the trend favors the use of *student-personnel services* for the college level and *pupil-personnel services* for the secondary school. Whatever the name by which it is called, guidance is being based increasingly upon the recognition that the happy person is one who is healthy in mind and body and that both emotional and physical factors are involved and interrelated in an individual's well-being.

Definitions of Guidance

To define guidance is not easy. Authorities disagree on the precise meaning of the term, and their definitions vary in breadth from a narrow description, as exemplified by the effort of a single adult to help a child realize that looting lunch boxes is misbehavior, to the all-embracing point of view that furthering mental health is the chief concern of all teaching and must permeate the entire educative process, including the guidance program. The following definitions of guidance illustrate this wide variety:

"Student-personnel work is delivering the student to the classroom in the optimum condition for profiting by instruction,"[1] according to Bradshaw. Achieving this result, of course, may not be simple at all, for a variety of problems resulting from behavior and personality disorders may have to be solved before this "optimum condition" is achieved; Bradshaw's emphasis is on the aim of guidance to reinforce the educative function of the school.

According to Chisholm's definition, "Guidance seeks to have each individual become familiar with a wide range of information about himself."[2] Here, of course, the emphasis is upon equipping the student with self-knowledge.

Two definitions which combine these emphases on school and on the individual's whole life are those of Dunsmoor and Miller, who conceive of guidance as "a means of helping individuals to understand and use wisely the educational, vocational, and personal opportunities they have or can develop"; and as "a form of systematic assistance whereby students are aided in achieving satisfactory adjustment to school and to life."[3] A similar defini-

[1] F. F. Bradshaw, "The Scope and Aim of a Personnel Program," *Ed. Rec.*, 17 (Jan. 1936), p. 121.
[2] Leslie L. Chisholm, *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School*, American Book Co., 1945, p. 3.
[3] Clarence C. Dunsmoor and Leonard M. Miller, *Guidance Methods for Teachers in Homeroom, Classroom, and Core Program*, International Textbook Co., 1942, p. 3.

tion, which perhaps has a more definite focus, is Lefever's: ". . . guidance is that systematic, organized phase of the educational process which helps youth grow in his power to give point and direction to his own life, to the end that he may gain richer personal experiences while making his own unique contribution to our democratic society."[4]

The ability to make choices among adjustments is emphasized by Glenn Smith's definition of guidance as "a process that consists of a group of services to individuals to assist them in securing the knowledge and skills needed in making adequate choices, plans, and interpretations essential to satisfactory adjustment in a variety of areas. These services are designed to result in efficiency in areas which require that the individual make adjustments in order that he may be an effective member of society."[5]

Another definition, which helps to bridge the gap between personal counseling and vocational counseling, is that proposed by Super, who points out that the modern emphasis in vocational counseling involves a process of helping the individual in three ways: to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of self; to relate this concept of self to the environmental world; and to establish goals and develop plans in accordance with this self-environment configuration.[6]

Early vocational counseling tended to restrict itself to measuring a student's aptitudes in order to direct him into the kind of work for which his abilities and potentialities seemed to fit him. This kind of help is now recognized to be only part of the guidance task, for many an able person fails in a job and in being a secure and happy individual because of emotional problems and behavior disorders. The trend, therefore, is toward recognizing that both emotional and physical factors are involved in an individual's well-being and in his vocational adjustment, and that guidance must help him to overcome emotional difficulties which hamper him. This principle applies, of course, to the young person in school as well as to the adult seeking a job.

A Philosophy for Guidance

It is the point of view of this book that the chief purpose of education is to help individuals become increasingly self-directive and capable of creative

[4] D. Welty Lefever, Archie M. Turrell, and Henry I. Weitzel, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance*, Ronald Press, 1950, p. 3.
[5] Glenn E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program*, Macmillan Co., 1951, p. 6.
[6] Donald E. Super, "Charting our Fields," *Occupations*, 26 (1948), pp. 346-348.

and purposeful living. The human personality is not fixed at birth by inflexible factors of heredity; rather, it grows and develops as the individual lives in interaction with his environment. Heredity does set some limits to this growth, of course, but within these limits the possibilities are varied and rich. Every individual should be helped to study and understand himself as a unique personality, growing, changing, and developing in constant response to the pressures and stimuli of the time and place in which he lives. Knowledge of self can help him become increasingly confident, resourceful, and capable of planning for himself and taking the initiative in adjusting to his environment so as to make his life more satisfactory. Some individuals are handicapped, it is true, by physical or mental deficiencies which restrict their progress in maturing into able, serene adults; but these cases are the exceptions. Modern psychologists hold that the vast majority of people are capable of growing and of adjusting, at their own level of adaptability, to the demands and opportunities which surround them.

It is the task of the counseling process to help people fulfill their potentials for growth. When a pupil comes to a teacher or counselor with a problem, it is the latter's purpose to help the pupil solve the difficulty; but in the process of solving the problem, the young person must be guided into self-knowledge, into some new insight and awareness that will make him better equipped to handle such problems in the future.

A fourth-grader, Eddie, tells his teacher that he is afraid to go home. Why? Because a sixth-grader is waiting outside to beat him up. Why? Because he picked on the sixth-grader's third-grade brother. The culprit has already learned that bullying small boys who have large brothers has its perils. It is now the counseling adult's task to help him to realize that bullying anybody, with brothers or without, is a mistake, to help him to learn from his own fright what anguished fear the little third-grader experienced; to become aware of how society looks upon individuals who prey on weaker persons; to realize perhaps that in hitting the smaller boy he was working off spite or frustration caused by somebody too big for him to tackle; and even to consider whether it wasn't possible for him to settle the argument with the third-grader without resorting to fists. Even if the third-grader did deserve roughing up, an older, bigger, more responsible boy must make allowances. If the fourth-grader can be helped to realize that he *is* older, bigger, more responsible, something has been gained; and if he can be aided to achieve some measure of empathy, and to grasp some insights into the social implications of the situation, he has achieved actual growth. The youngster may or may not escape a mauling from the older brother; he may or may not repeat the bullying at a later date; but in any event, a seed of insight has been planted which may affect his behavior later.

A high-school freshman tells his homeroom teacher that he is in trouble. He found a pocketbook containing nine dollars in a hallway and used the money to buy himself a white windbreaker. Now the school paper is running an ad in the "Lost and Found" which describes the purse and its contents. He had found it in a school hall? Yes. But, the teacher asks, aren't you supposed to turn in anything you find to the school office? Yes. He'd known that, but . . . What, he asks, should he do now? The counseling adult will probably not need to make this student see that spending the found money was wrong; he is probably all too aware of that already. What he does need is help in understanding why the temptation was too strong for him, and in foreseeing the consequences of continuing such behavior; and, on the positive side, he needs aid in finding part-time work that will enable him to buy some of the items of dress and recreation for which he yearns. An interview between teacher and parents might conceivably help— though, if the family is poor, it may be difficult for them to give him more money. In any event, the teacher will help him; unless he has a long record of getting into trouble and then depending on others to extricate him, she will try to correct the situation with as little trauma for him as possible. One solution would be to return the jacket and recover the money; otherwise, a loan and a chance to earn some money must be arranged. The counseling effort would fall short of its purpose, however, unless the boy gained understanding which would help him withstand similar temptations in the future.

A high-school junior, in the course of talk with his counselor, reveals that he is upset because he has asked a certain girl to go to a school dance but she has refused to give him a definite answer—and he knows why. She is waiting to see if another boy will invite her to that dance; if he does not, she will accept the junior's invitation, as second best. The junior naturally resents this situation and, since he likes the girl very much, is considerably disturbed. A little questioning by the counselor may reveal that the boy dances poorly, or dresses carelessly, or does not have the use of the family car, or is tongue-tied when with a girl. Helping the young man to correct such minor lapses may solve the problem. If, however, the causes are subtler and deeper, it may be necessary to help him to see that it is wiser not to set one's sights upon an unattainable goal.

Another type of problem which a counselor meets frequently is that of unreal aspirations. A senior tells his counselor that he wants to be a surgeon, that his parents want him to go into medicine, and that he has planned to be a doctor as long as he can remember. His uncle, whom he admires greatly, is a successful surgeon. The counselor cannot encourage this hope. He knows that the boy's grades barely average C and that he has an I.Q. of 90

to 100. He is a good athlete and is adequate in shopwork but is contemptuous of it; he belittles his skill in woodworking by saying that his mother says that he has surgeon's hands. For the boy's own welfare, he must be helped to a realistic estimate of his capabilities. The process must be slow and tactful, however; blunt advice may merely alienate him without achieving any change of plans or attitudes and without giving him maturer insight.

Even if a pupil is willing to act without question or reluctance upon the counselor's suggestion, such counseling—and this point merits emphasis— would fall short of its goal. The counseling process should not be visualized as one of ordering or directing young people who need help; rather than thinking *for* or merely *about* the individual, it is the counselor's task to think *with* him. This is an important, challenging, and too-little understood concept. Counseling is not made up of analysis and advice; it is not a matter of adjusting other people's lives; rather, it is a mutual appraisal of problems, a mutual exploration of possible actions, a mutual decision on plans for solving situations. The student asking for help must not fall into a passive, dependent role in which he merely accepts explicit instructions from a wiser person. The goal of guidance is to free the individual to accept responsibility for his own decisions and to develop ability for self-analysis and self-direction. The process of thinking *with*, not *for*, does work toward the desired end of achieving self-reliance. To the extent that adults can learn to think with, not for, the young person, they can help him develop resourcefulness and independence.

The concept of guidance as a process of cooperative responsibility and cooperative action further clarifies the counselor's role within the school and his method of helping individual pupils. He has a dual task: to acquaint the teachers and other interested authorities with the unique pattern of needs, resources, and modes of adjustment of each individual pupil; and to provide the individual pupil with opportunity and aids—educational and occupational information, psychological techniques and data—to think through his problems at critical times and to carry out the conclusions he reaches.

The counselor provides still another needed service: opportunity for occasional release of tension. Some time ago a magazine published an item about a young woman in New York who made a living by charging a fee to listen to anyone who wanted to talk about his troubles. She had an office; clients telephoned to make appointments; when a client came, he sat across the desk from her—and she listened. She offered no advice and made no comments but simply listened with a sympathetic expression. Although this seems an odd way to make a living on the one hand and a foolish way to spend money on the other, the clients probably got their money's worth.

"Talking it out" is one of the mechanisms for release of tension and anxiety.

The counselor is often a listening ear for the pupil who is so upset that he must find someone upon whom to pour out his troubles. The counselor who will listen with kindly, supportive understanding furnishes the young person with a safe outlet for inner pressures which might otherwise bring on damaging behavior or loss of confidence and self-esteem. Such a "talking out" often gives the pupil a catharsis of feeling about his problems, a restoration of inner strength, and new insight.

Functions of Guidance

In the past, guidance functions were classified in a number of ways. One classification, which was popular for a long period, divided guidance services into the areas of educational guidance, personal guidance, social guidance, and health guidance. A more recent set of categories used the three divisions of educational guidance, vocational guidance, and personal guidance. The general nature of a counselee's problem would be indicated by which of these terms applied to it.

The disadvantages of such categories as these lay in the fact that they failed to recognize the complex interrelationships of human nature. Because an individual's problems overlap and interweave, he can seldom isolate one difficulty for treatment by a counselor and another difficulty for treatment by a second counselor. A personality disorder usually has many facets which may express themselves simultaneously in the educational, personal, and social aspects of an individual's life. The withdrawn child, for example, may be not only too shy to enter into games with other children but may be prone to spend so much time in daydreaming that he does not finish his school work. He thus has a social problem of lack of group participation and an educational problem of inadequate learning achievement; and these failures, in turn, may cause parental pressure and rejection which inflict feelings of guilt, frustration, and inferiority upon the youngster.

Despite the difficulty of making clear distinctions among guidance services, as conceived in the dimension of counseling, there seems to be particular merit in the classification made by Koos and Kefauver, which relates guidance functions to a total educational program.[7] To their proposed basic classification of these functions into an *adjustive* function and a *distributive* function, the writer would add a third, an *adaptive* function.

[7] L. V. Koos and Grayson Kefauver, *Guidance in the Secondary School*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1925.

The Adjustive Function

Even those young people who have chosen an appropriate educational program for themselves may have problems which require help or therapy. An average teacher may spend from one fifth to one third of her time on just two pupils who need a great deal of help, thus depriving the rest of the class of a large share of her time which should be devoted to their educational needs. The counselor, by helping such troubled students to understand and resolve their difficulties and to relate their needs to the real world of demand and opportunity, frees the teacher to be more efficient in her job. This adjustive service of the school counselor is not necessary for all students but must be available when needed.

Most college students seek out this help on their own initiative; some high-school students also go directly to the counselor, although in many cases teachers refer pupils to the guidance workers; in the elementary school, pupils requiring guidance must always be referred by a teacher.

The counselor, in this adjustive phase of his work, supplies diagnostic and treatment services. For the older student, counseling and orientation or placement may be involved, and for the young child play therapy or participation in group therapy. Whatever the method of discharging his adjustive function, the guidance worker must know the individual and the situation and must possess skills to develop solutions to difficulties of human relationships.

The typical school counselor spends about one half of his time in the distributive function of guidance, aiding students to select programs and plan educational careers, and one third of his time in the adjustive function of assisting students who have unusual problems, such as failure, persistent unhappiness, or lack of friends and a satisfying social life. The remaining part of his time is devoted to advising the school authorities in curriculum planning.

The Distributive Function

Of the vast numbers of young people who come to our schools each year, no two are identical. Among them are the happy and well-adjusted, the moody and withdrawn, the able and the handicapped, the bright and the dull or retarded, the ambitious and the lazy. To all, the school offers a wide choice of courses and social and athletic activities—literally hundreds of learning opportunities among which they must choose. The compulsions and preconceived notions with which young people come to school complicate the problem of choice: some have unreal aspirations; some are driven

solely by pressure from parents; others crowd toward the programs and activities that have most prestige among their peers.

A basic function of guidance is to assist students to distribute their energies wisely into the many educational channels. The problem, of course, is *how to assist each person to find the pattern of courses and activities uniquely appropriate to his character and his needs.* To provide adequate guidance, the counselor must know each student—and know the opportunities open to him. This distributive aspect of guidance involves (1) discovering individual student needs, and (2) making these needs known to the student himself and to the teachers who plan the school program. This function of guidance, perhaps more than the other two, applies not merely to troubled and uncertain students but to all students. Every student needs to be helped to plan his major course of study and pattern of social and athletic activities. In this role, as in his other roles, the counselor serves as a resource person who provides accurate information and full opportunity for discussion and thinking through, and who offers direct suggestion sparingly.

The Adaptive Function

In order to fulfill their responsibility to the community, schools must continuously adapt courses and activities to the actual needs of the young people in their classrooms. Guidance counselors play a vital role in this adaptive function of contributing to the development of the curriculum. Counselors, working constantly with individual students, know their personal problems and aspirations, their abilities and aptitudes, as well as the opportunities and the social pressures awaiting them. Counselors can therefore provide the data which must serve as a basis for curriculum thinking, and they can help curriculum experts shape courses of study which will more accurately serve their intended purpose. A curriculum that is developed without an inner skeleton of guidance purposes fails in a basic responsibility to education.

The special techniques used by counselors in this adaptive function are the *individual inventory* and the *follow-up study*, which are primarily services to the school as a whole. The data that are gathered provide the factual basis upon which to initiate and implement changes in the school program.

The Role of Guidance in the Educational Program

An analysis of the various definitions of guidance indicates that there exist two major concepts of guidance, both of which can be found expressed in existing school programs: (1) an inclusive concept which holds that all

of education must help individuals to grow up to be adequate, effective, healthy, and happy adults; and (2) a sharply focused concept of guidance as a pattern of specialized services.

In some school systems, every facet of school life, every class, and every activity, has its purpose in helping pupils toward full realization of every potential for success and happiness which they possess, and consequently all the teachers are responsible for providing vocational information and for counseling. In other systems, however, guidance is organized as the sole job of a special group—the guidance department. Only the trained counselors of that department make any planned effort to give help to individuals who are confused or aimless or disturbed.

Which point of view is preferable? Actually, taken alone, neither of these concepts adequately describes the role of guidance, but the two are not really in contradiction. It is helpful to interpret the first concept as the *purpose* of guidance and the second concept as the *method*. The goal of guidance in the public school, like the goal of education as a total program, is the development of mature, productive, self-reliant, and happy people. Perhaps the most accurate description of the relationship is that the basic principle of guidance is *to give each individual whatever help he needs* to achieve success and happiness; and that, to achieve this purpose, *a series of guidance services must be provided*. These special services are carried on by the whole educational team: some by teachers, some by administrators, some by specialists.

Guidance Services in the School

Although the various guidance services are not uniformly found in all schools and are not always identified in the same way, some emerging common patterns may be observed in the modern secondary school. Among the services found in most schools are the following:

ORIENTATION. Guidance counselors organize a series of activities designed to help new students to become acquainted with the school, to know the staff and physical plant, to understand the structure of courses and requirements, to know school customs and activities, to become acquainted with one another, and to develop a sense of purpose and of belonging.

INDIVIDUAL INVENTORY. A plan for maintaining a continuous study of each student includes the development and use of cumulative records, the testing program, and other procedures and techniques of assessing individual growth. Stress is placed on the application of the data to teaching and counseling.

EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION. The school provides for collecting and disseminating accurate and current information in order that

the student may make an intelligent choice of an educational program, an occupation, or a social activity.

COUNSELING. The school provides the time, the place, and the personnel required for skilled assistance to individual students in working out solutions to personal problems. Counseling is an individual process which employs techniques and relationships different from those involved in the classroom situation.

PLACEMENT. The school assists the student to find appropriate employment or further training. Placement requires organized procedures for locating opportunities and referring qualified applicants.

FOLLOW-UP. Guidance counselors develop a systematic plan for maintaining contact with former students. The data obtained from follow-up studies aid the school in evaluating the effectiveness of the program.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES. Many school activities, both curricular and non-curricular—clubs, student government, athletics, class organizations, assemblies, parties—serve guidance purposes by providing opportunities for the individual to explore and develop interests, to try out abilities, and to find satisfying relationships. It should be noted that student activities play an important role in the orientation and information programs.

In the successful guidance program, all these important and interrelated activities become integrated into the total educational process, giving it focus and direction.

Individualized Education

Each student is unique, and the differences between one student and another are many and often extreme. Education, to be effective, must recognize individual differences and attempt to function so that the whole process of teaching is individualized to meet each pupil's needs. *Ideally, it is the responsibility of every teacher to understand the interests, abilities, and feelings of every child and to adapt the educational program to meet these individual needs as adequately as possible.*

It is in this broad, pervasive effort to individualize education that the specialized services of a guidance department prove to be so valuable. For they provide, in a school program serving large numbers of pupils, the data and the interpretative assistance that make individualization possible. "The primary duty of such counselors," says Rothney, "will be that of collecting, collating, and interpreting data about, and to, the individual."[8]

Guidance counselors have the training, the experience, and the tech-

[8] John W. M. Rothney and B. A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student*, Dryden Press, 1949, p. 9.

niques required to discover each student's unique abilities, problems, and urgent needs. Counselors can therefore support the teacher by providing her with the information about her students that she must have in order to give each individual in her class the special help he needs. In addition, in cases of serious necessity, the counselors may themselves help students toward overcoming physical or emotional blocks to learning and toward recognizing their own skills and aptitudes, so that they may become more receptive to the efforts of their teachers to guide them to self-directive maturity.

At the present level of development of guidance in the school program, two of the services should receive greater emphasis: *individual inventory* and *counseling*. Improved training of personnel workers is necessary, both in preservice training and in the continuous inservice program. New tools and techniques for counseling and for making individual inventories are constantly being devised by many research institutions—educational and military centers, industry research programs, and psychological laboratories. Many of these new developments can be directly applied to school guidance services; and others may be applied after testing and refinement in actual school situations.

Of all school personnel, the counselor should be in the best position to study the individual in all of his relationships; and, of course, the counselor should be equipped for his task with the best techniques; he should be able to go beyond the collection of information to its application in the improvement of educational services for each pupil.

The Approach of This Book

In the chapters that follow, an attempt is made to present a picture of guidance services in the modern school. Three purposes have been kept in mind: (1) to provide a clear overview of the total program as it operates in the school—its objectives, organization, and operation; (2) to develop a concept of counseling which meets the needs of the school situation; and (3) to bring together a series of brief descriptions of tools and techniques now available for the study of individuals and to examine their application.

Part I of this book deals with the history and organization of guidance effort in the school.

Part II is concerned with helping the individual pupil. If a pupil's needs are to be met it is obviously necessary to discover first what they are. The chapters of this Part are concerned with learning pupils' backgrounds, abilities and aptitudes, interests and adjustments. Many personal problems cannot be handled in a group situation but require individual diagnosis and treatment. The basic technique explored by this book is the process of *counseling*—its backgrounds and its principles and procedures.

Part III deals with vocational counseling.

Part IV deals with group guidance. Education for all the children of our nation involves an enormous school population. For counselors to work individually with each child would be extremely costly. Fortunately, it is not always necessary; group guidance is often possible, and it results in important economies. Many problems of adjustment are so common that they can be dealt with in group situations. Wherever possible, this book emphasizes the development of a school guidance program which makes use of group techniques.

Part V deals with evaluation of the guidance program and with the qualifications and training of school counselors.

Guidance is not crystallized into patterns and recipes that can be infallibly applied. Society is in flux; individuals constantly face new problems of adjustment. Because guidance is continuously evolving and developing to meet new problems and new pressures, it is necessary for guidance workers to evaluate continuously the effectiveness of their techniques—to discard methods which prove useless and to discover and apply new ways of helping young people to accept themselves and others as they really are and to find joy in making an active contribution, whether exalted or humble, to society.

Summary

Guidance in the modern school contributes in two broad areas to the concept that education is an individual process. The guidance worker in the school seeks constantly to represent this concept and to assist in its implementation. He studies the needs of individuals and makes these needs known to teachers and other staff members. This is his contribution to the philosophy of the school program. Guidance also represents a pattern of services, which includes orientation, individual inventory, educational and occupational information, counseling, placement, and follow-up. All are designed to assist in individualizing the school program.

Patterns of guidance services have developed in most secondary schools during the past four decades. In the elementary school, too, much development has occurred, particularly through the work of teachers trained for and dedicated to the task of understanding and enhancing the development of the whole child. Two of these service areas are of primary importance and are in need of further development: *individual inventory* and *counseling*. Research has provided improved tools and techniques in these areas; through their use, the guidance worker can make a unique contribution to the educational program.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Suppose that you have just completed your first year of teaching. You did well in your college courses, but you had no college work in child development or in sociology or anthropology. You have taught a fifth-grade class of 36 pupils in a school on the outskirts of a college town in a farming area; and in this class you had some very bright pupils, several mentally retarded, some from migrant farm-worker families, and some whose fathers are professional people. As you think back upon the year, you realize that: Your bright pupils were frequently bored. The dull-normal youngsters felt inferior and unsuccessful. The mentally retarded pupils sat in dull apathy most of the time—and you (the teacher) resented having them in the room because you felt that you were wasting time on them, and increasingly you wasted less time on them. The educationally deprived migrant children were a drag on the class, requiring a disproportionate amount of time and effort from you. Discipline was a difficult and unending problem.

Nevertheless, the principal seems satisfied with your performance during this first year of your actual experience as a teacher. Why is he satisfied? He does, of course, suggest ways in which you might improve your work the following year. What specific suggestions do you think he would make?

2. What are the implications concerning the educational program of a high school in a small community when the following criticisms are made of the graduates:
a. Business people advertise for employees in other communities because local young people are not equipped for job needs.
b. High-school graduates from this community do poorly when they go to the state university.

AND PROJECTS

c. Discipline problems are more numerous and more severe in the local high school than in other nearby high schools.

3. Play the role of the counselor in the following situations:

a. Toby Andrews tells you that he plans to be a movie producer when he grows up. You are aware that even if he were gifted in writing, acting, or managing people he would have a most difficult time fighting through the competition to win a chance at directing films. He is not gifted in any of these areas, however, but is just a normal, pleasant boy; moreover, his father is not well and it is likely that after a year or two of college Toby will have to find work to contribute to his family's support.

b. Edith Toller happily tells you during a counseling session that as soon as she graduates from high school this spring she will get a job as clerk in a local insurance office. Not a summer job but a *permanent* one! You are aghast. Edith is the brightest pupil you have; her I.Q. is well over 160. She is not only mentally able but pretty and has an attractive personality; you are positive she could be successful in any profession she turned to. But college requires money; her father is a disabled veteran, and the family finds living on his pension difficult.

4. In your own educational experience:

a. Were you helped, by means of an organized program, to orient yourself in high school?

b. Were you given tests in high school that were interpreted to you to help you discover your interests and aptitudes?

c. Were you given job information?

d. Did you have a counselor in high school to help you with personal problems? Was one available to you whose help you did not use?

e. Were you helped in high school to find a job, or guided into further vocational training?

f. Did the school get in touch with you after graduation to learn what you were doing and whether you were satisfied?

g. Did you take part in student activities? Which did you find most rewarding?

h. As a teacher, have you ever asked the guidance department of your school for information on specific pupil's needs, aptitudes, and problems of adjustment?

5. If the services mentioned in the preceding problem were not available to you as a student, do you have any clear opinion as to whether or not they might have helped you if they *had* been offered to you? If you did go to a school which provided these services, do you think that they helped you?

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Basic Concepts in Guidance

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANIZED GUIDANCE

CONCEPTS OF GUIDANCE ORGANIZATION

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

GUIDANCE is not a new activity in education. One of the historical roles of teachers has been to "guide" pupils in the direction of socially approved modes of behavior, taking into account individual differences and the necessity of discovering and meeting the unique needs of each child and youth. In the traditional one-room schoolhouse, which occupies a revered position in the history of American education, the teacher knew each child as a person and as a member of a family—and knew much about his emotional difficulties and his problems in human relations. The teacher did not, however, counsel members of her class on the basis of an organized plan. Her major effort was concentrated on working with every student to achieve a standard accomplishment in the three-R skills and to develop behavior patterns which conformed with the dominant social values of the time and the community. Those individuals who could not meet the academic requirements left school and went to work. Specialists in diagnosis, remediation, and behavior were unknown. Guidance as a part of the work of the teacher consisted essentially in pointing out what was "right" and urging its acceptance.

Educational purposes were clearly related to vocational purposes; hence,

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whatever organized guidance activities existed were primarily vocational in emphasis. This was particularly true in the secondary school, where a fully prescribed curriculum prepared the student to enter college as a candidate for the ministry, medicine, or the law. Although the basic interest of early Americans in individual initiative might naturally have provided fertile ground for the development of guidance as a school service, concern for individual guidance did not begin with the American secondary school.

Historical Development of Organized Guidance

There is some evidence of thinking and possible action in the field of guidance as long ago as the time of ancient Rome. Cicero, in the first century B.C., stated, "We must decide what manner of men we wish to be and what calling in life we would follow."[1] In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, some European schools embodied in teaching some of the concepts which are accepted today as personnel services. Locke wrote in 1695, "He therefore who is about children should well study their Natures and Aptitudes, and see, by often Trials, what Turn they easily take."[2] In *Bleak House* (1853), Charles Dickens provides an example of an early use of the word *counseled* in the contemporary sense when he described Richard as a youth who was *counseled* or advised.[3] These few examples chosen from many that might be offered suggest that young people were counseled in their problems of vocational choice long before schools established organized vocational guidance programs.

Early Experiments in Vocational Guidance

As early as 1895, a systematic vocational guidance program was developed at the California School of Mechanical Arts in San Francisco. The program provided an exploratory experience in each of the trades offered in the school, analysis of the individual, counseling, job placement, and follow-up of former students.[4] This program, however, apparently did not expand beyond the one school. About 1902, state-supported schools providing similar vocational training were founded in Massachusetts and Wisconsin.[5]

[1] Cicero, *On Duties*, Book I, Chapters 32-33, quoted from J. M. Brewer, *History of Vocational Guidance*, Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 12.
[2] John Locke, *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*, Section 66, quoted in Brewer, *op. cit.*, p. 14.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 12.
[4] Glenn Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program*, Macmillan Co., 1951, p. 120.
[5] Brewer, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

The real impetus to vocational counseling, however, seems to have been given by Frank Parsons' organization in 1908 of the Vocational Bureau, which was devoted primarily to assisting young people to make vocational choices based upon their occupational aptitudes and interests. Parsons' concept of vocational guidance was expressed in his book *Choosing a Vocation*, in which he described the field as embracing three broad factors: (1) clear understanding of self, (2) knowledge of the requirements and conditions for success in different lines of work, and (3) true reasoning about the relations between these two groups of facts. Parsons also introduced the term *vocational guidance*, which he described as a process designed to aid young people in choosing an occupation, in preparing themselves for it, in finding an opening in it, and in building up an efficient and successful career. Parsons' original definition is essentially the same as that currently accepted by the National Vocational Guidance Association (now a division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association), which maintains that "Vocational Guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon it and progress in it."[6]

Since Parsons considered counseling for individuals to be an essential guidance service, shortly after the Vocational Bureau was established he announced a plan for training counselors. Its purpose was to prepare young men to become vocational counselors and to manage vocational bureaus in connection with Y.M.C.A.'s, schools, colleges and universities, public-school systems, associations, and business establishments throughout the country. It is significant in terms of its subsequent development that Parsons conceived of counseling as a learning rather than as an advice-giving process.

In 1909, through the efforts of the Vocational Bureau of Boston, one counselor-teacher was appointed for each elementary school and high school in Boston. These teachers were not, however, released from any of their teaching duties to act as counselors, nor were they provided with funds for necessary tools, supplies, and materials; and many of the counselor positions were discontinued the following year.

In 1910, Louis P. Nash was designated to investigate and recommend plans for the establishment of vocational guidance in the Boston schools. He concluded that high schools should offer a course of study on vocations which all pupils who were undecided about their calling would be required to take. He suggested that a number of typical occupations be carefully studied by such means as lectures by experts, books, and visits to business and professional establishments, so that pupils might have a chance to explore various career possibilities.[7]

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 126.
[7] *Ibid.*, p. 132.

The following year, Frank P. Goodwin organized a guidance program in the Cincinnati, Ohio, schools which included:

(1) study of the individual and the use of personnel cards;
(2) systematic efforts to keep the life-career motive before high-school pupils;
(3) collection of occupational information, including that on the personal factors required for success in different lines of work;
(4) knowledge of opportunities for advanced training, especially college training; and
(5) better adaptation of school courses to the vocational needs of students.

The conditions which Goodwin considered essential for a successful vocational-guidance program were:[8]

(1) the appointment of a director with time for supervision;
(2) a school organization which permits the close contact of each pupil with at least one teacher sincerely interested in him and having a guidance point of view;
(3) the exercise of an intelligent and sympathetic helpfulness on the part of the teacher;
(4) a logical analysis of the personal characteristics of each pupil; and
(5) an understanding of the relation of schoolwork to the vocational needs of the community.

Between 1909 and 1913, Richard D. Allen, while affiliated with the Boston Vocational Bureau, produced many pamphlets and books concerned with vocational opportunities and requirements and initiated conferences with the Boston school counselors. Because of the groundwork laid by both Nash and Allen, the Vocational Information Department was established in Boston in 1913. This department gave new impetus to the expansion of vocational information made available to the Boston schools.

Through the efforts of the Boston Vocational Bureau and the interest shown by the Boston schools, the Boston Chamber of Commerce sponsored, in March 1910, the first national conference on vocational guidance. This conference, which served as the genesis of the National Vocational Guidance Association, was concerned with vocational guidance only, restricting itself so rigidly to this area that an account of the guidance being offered in English classes in Grand Rapids, Michigan, was ruled out of order.[9] A second national conference was held in New York City in 1912, and plans were projected for establishing a national organization. At the third national con-

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 134.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 139.

vention, held in Grand Rapids in 1913, the provisional constitution was adopted and the first officers of the N.V.G.A. were elected.

In 1915, the Department of Vocational Guidance was organized in Boston, and the Vocational Bureau became part of the Boston school system. In the same year, certification of counselors was established, based on adequate education as well as experience in a vocational school or in a special vocational service approved by the Board of Superintendents. About this time, schools in New York City were making use of volunteer counselors in a program similar to that in Boston. The New York program introduced the practice of supervised part-time jobs for students.

Although only about a dozen programs of guidance were established during the first ten years after the inception of the Vocational Bureau of Boston, many educators had been made aware of the need for planned guidance services, and many experiments, some of them short-lived, pointed to at least three significant gains: "A few school administrators had recognized the need for guidance services and had brought to the task of developing those services the important element of administrative support; recognition of the need for providing staff leadership for guidance programs had become apparent; a group of tools and techniques essential to guidance programs were started on the long road to development and refinement."[10]

Other national developments included the founding, in February 1933, of the National Occupational Conference to study occupational-adjustment problems; the establishment in 1936 by the N.O.C. of the *Occupational Index*,[11] which issued periodically an annotated index of books and pamphlets relating to the broad field of guidance services; and the publication by the N.O.C., which continued to function until 1939, of several important books, including *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing*, by Walter V. Bingham, and *Job Satisfaction*, by Robert Hoppock. The growth of a number of major professional organizations whose memberships included counselors and guidance workers gave increasing momentum to the guidance movement.

Influence of the Federal Government and of Higher Education

The guidance movement received added impetus in 1938 when a national committee of educators recommended an expanded program of federal aid for vocational education. The committee found that there was a need for an occupational-outlook service to provide information on national, state, and local levels regarding the number of recruits required annually in each of the major occupational fields and the number in training for each occupa-

[10] Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 136.
[11] Now published by Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, N. J.

tion. It also pointed out the need for guidance and placement services to work closely with employment offices, as an aid to vocational training and industry recruitment. As a result of the committee's report, the Occupational Outlook Service was established in the Department of Labor in 1940.

In October 1938, the U.S. Office of Education established the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, funds for which were authorized by the George-Deen Act. Originally the funds were intended to subsidize vocational education only, but the Act was later interpreted more broadly to allow their use for more general guidance purposes. The establishment of this national service then made it possible for the various states also to make use of federal funds for like services, authorized by the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts. In 1946 the George-Barden Act made available federal funds for salaries of guidance supervisors and counselors at the local level. With federal aid now available in many states at the state and local levels, one of the hurdles to guidance has now been at least partly surmounted.[12]

The fact that several universities and colleges began offering courses in the various areas of guidance helped the growth of guidance services in the secondary schools. In 1949, according to Froehlich, a little over one thousand colleges and universities offered guidance courses, and of this number "... 548 had courses in analysis of the individual, 513 offered a basic course in the field of guidance, 100 offered a course in occupational information, 169 offered a course in counseling techniques, 100 offered supervised practice in guidance services, and 78 offered courses in administrative relationships. . . ."[13] By 1949, there were twenty states certifying counselors.[14]

The evolution of interest in guidance services in education has not been an isolated movement. Although cause-and-effect relationships are difficult to establish, we may note that coinciding with the development of the guidance movement there have been significant changes in the American culture, both within and without the school. The high-school or college graduate must find his way not only within a vastly increased population but also within a context of vastly increased social complexity. The startling changes in methods of production that began with the industrial revolution have contributed to the almost complete separation of home and job. As both father and mother often become involved in work activities outside the home, responsibilities for the protection, rearing, and guidance of children

[12] Federal funds are available on a matched-fund basis—that is, federal agencies provide money in amounts equal to the sums which the state or local units allocate for these purposes.
[13] Clifford P. Froehlich and Helen S. Spivey, *Guidance Workers Preparation*, U. S. Office of Education, July 1949, p. 45.
[14] Glenn E. Smith, *A Study of the Status of State Guidance Programs*, Guidance Service Division, Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1947.

have partially shifted to other social units. The church, which used to serve as a common meeting ground where important social and moral values were taught, has become less influential. Thus, responsibility for the practical vocational guidance of young people and for the development of value structures shifted from family and church to the schools.

Influence of the Behavioral Sciences

Concurrent with this shift of guidance functions to the schools have been developments in the behavioral sciences which have affected the concepts of the purpose and organization of school guidance services. As the study of man and his relationships has become more scientific, psychology has changed from a philosophical and speculative study to an empirical science with increasingly precise methods and instruments for assessing individual characteristics and needs. By the application of these new methods, the trained professional psychologist is now prepared to assist in the development of an adequate personality instead of merely dealing with man as a statistic. This professional development in psychology has resulted in the establishment of psychological clinics and child-guidance centers and in the employment of professional psychologists for work in the schools.

Similar development has occurred in the social sciences: in sociology, the study of man in his group life; in economics, knowledge—the product of experience in labor relations—of the individual's role and status in a complex economy; in anthropology, historical breadth and depth in the understanding of our culture. The interdependence of these many facets of the study of man is illustrated in the growth of interdisciplinary research studies and in the founding of such cross-fertilized groups as are represented by the child-study institutes at Yale, the University of Iowa, and the University of Chicago.

The development of the child-guidance movement has been another richly contributing factor. In the typical child-guidance center the work of the psychiatrist and the social worker has been focused upon the needs of the child, and this trend has brought about not only a greater recognition of need but also the development of diagnostic and therapeutic techniques and competencies, which in turn have made possible increasingly broad programs of health and welfare improvement. In addition, teacher- and counselor-training curriculums at the college level, and the requirement of increasingly high levels of competence for certification by the various states, have further contributed to both the recognition of the need for and the provision of personnel adequately prepared to deal with guidance problems.

Obviously and inevitably, the result of this growing professional awareness and adequacy has been the assumption by modern guidance programs of new and broader responsibilities. Guidance services are now expected to take a leading part in making the school actively concerned for the pupil's mental health and social and emotional life as well as for his academic and vocational achievement; in fact, guidance work is now often referred to as "pupil personnel services" and involves the acceptance of responsibility for the child's full school experience and, to some extent, for his interdependent home and community experiences. Thus the guidance program has been greatly expanded and deepened since the time when its original concern was with vocational aid at the secondary-school level. Modern guidance services, building upon new developments in the various behavioral sciences, now seek to provide a rich variety of aids to children and youth to enable them to make use of all that is known about environment and growth in finding for themselves satisfying roles in our complex society.

Changing Educational Needs

Important changes have also occurred within the school. In the early American school, with its narrow educational objectives, guidance functions were limited to determining which students should go to college. As has been indicated, the school later became concerned with a second group of students: those who could not continue in school and needed immediate job placement. This resulted in the early development of vocational-guidance services, particularly the provision of occupational information and aids to placement. But the vast group of students who were neither preparing for professions nor seeking immediate jobs was outside the concern of school guidance services. During this period, counselors and other guidance specialists were unknown. Guidance in the school was part of the general function of the teacher and the administrator; the guidance service rendered dealt almost exclusively with educational and vocational problems; and the method used was to urge the student to accept advice and act upon it. Guidance services were conducted almost entirely without specialized techniques, tests, or other diagnostic instruments.

With the secondary schools now providing a general education for all children rather than a preparatory education only for those who will enter the traditional professions, high-school enrollments have increased sharply, both in absolute numbers and in the relative proportion of students completing secondary schooling. Thus, the determination of student needs and the provision of an educational program and guidance services to meet these

needs must operate on a much broader basis. The growing recognition of this fact during the last half-century has been partly a response to the changing demands of youth in an increasingly complex society and partly an outcome of the findings of research in the social sciences. The potential service consists not only in employing a battery of guidance materials and methodologies but also in generally accepting a set of basic principles and organizational patterns. The present task of the school administrator and guidance leader is to weld together an organization which will bring this potential of method and trained personnel into a program which effectively meets students' needs.

This brief account of the development of the guidance movement does not provide a specific set of principles on which a modern organization for guidance can be built, but it does provide some background for understanding the needs that produced the movement and some experiential data upon which to build a set of tentative organizational principles.

Concepts of Guidance Organization

The need that guidance fills cannot be met efficiently by haphazard planning; it requires an organization of functions as carefully and developmentally planned as those of any business venture. The purpose of organization in any enterprise is the achievement of the objectives of that enterprise; the objectives are the primary consideration, and the plan of organization depends on them and implements their achievement. In practice, the plan of organization involves people and responsibilities, their relationships and interrelationships. In this sense, an organizational structure for the achievement of guidance purposes in education involves a plan for relating the activities of guidance workers to one another and to those of other members of the educational team.

Ideally, the nature of the functions to be served determines the qualifications of the worker. Failure to recognize this is perhaps one cause of the apparent confusion and inconsistency of organizational patterns in the guidance field, for in the past a guidance organization was often built around an individual worker who happened to be available rather than upon a plan that evolved only after analysis of need, function, and objective. Usually the resulting program fell short of full success.

Experience in guidance now demonstrates that the following concepts are basic to the development of a reasonably successful program.

1. *Guidance is a facilitative service.*

Guidance services in education are facilitative in the sense that they do not themselves undertake to carry out the objectives of educational programs but rather provide aids to the pupil, the teacher, and the administrator which are intended to facilitate the development of the pupil and the success of the teacher's work with him. For example, the data which the counselor gathers about a young person are useful only as they influence the direct instructional work of the classroom teacher. When a counselor schedules certain classes and other activities for a pupil—that is, when the counselor acts in his distributive function—he contributes to the achievement of the goals of education, but he does not himself educate.

The facilitative nature of guidance does not in any sense lessen the importance of the counselor. In fact, the degree of success in learning achieved by many pupils is very largely dependent upon just such aid to the teacher as the counselor provides. To put it briefly, the counselor tries, in the light of what the data reveal about a pupil, to schedule for the pupil the most appropriate courses open to him, with the teacher or teachers most likely to be congenial and sympathetic; furthermore, the counselor encourages the pupil to take advantage of such social, athletic, and cultural opportunities offered by the school as will meet his needs.

This activity is not perfunctory and superficial; in many cases it makes the difference between success and frustration for a pupil. A timid, overly dependent child performs better with a patient, motherly teacher than with an exacting instructor who sets a fast tempo for a class. A big teen-age boy, outwardly mature but inwardly still uncertain, may be difficult with a young woman teacher who is small and pretty and attempts to maintain rigid discipline. The dull-normal pupil, hard-working but slow-paced and easily confused, often has difficulty with an instructor who is brilliant, quick, devoted to subject-matter competence and to the discovery of young people of fine promise. The foreign-born youngster with a language handicap, the mentally retarded, the emotionally disturbed, the physically handicapped— each pupil with a special need must be placed in courses that are compatible with that need and taught by the most understanding instructors available. Even pupils without an obvious problem of some degree of seriousness benefit from being helped to select courses that promise to develop their aptitudes and capabilities to the full.

Although there are some guidance activities which are direct learning situations in themselves, the school's organization for guidance should keep

constantly in mind the fact that the facilitative services make the most effective contribution to the work of teachers and administrators. Thus, in a very real sense, the facilitative emphasis should be foremost in the majority of guidance activities.

2. *Guidance serves all students.*

Experience indicates the importance of ensuring the availability of guidance services to all students, not merely to those who are found to deviate in some way. Pupils vary in the kind of counseling they require and in the amount of time the counselor must devote to them; but all children and youth do have problems at one time or another which the school guidance services can help them solve. The bright girl who is making perfect grades may be unpopular and need help to realize that a sharp tongue makes more enemies than friends; the amiable, friendly boy striving to make top grades when his ability is only average must be helped to appreciate his strengths and to accept his weaknesses. Neither is necessarily a deviate, and yet each can benefit from guidance.

It is dangerous, therefore, for the school counseling program to become identified as a service for deviate, discontented or defiant students, for the service will then be shunned. Not only will the student body in general avoid seeking help but so will the group that most needs counseling. The reasons for this are clear. In addition to the inertia and diffidence which keep young people from seeking advice, their compulsion to conform to group sentiment is a hampering factor. If it is a general opinion that you go to your counselor for help only if you are queer in some way or a "sorehead," the natural reaction is to stay away. Young people with problems are especially likely to stay away, since many of them yearn even more strongly for the liking and respect of their peers and have less courage in going against the mores of the group than their age-mates who are more emotionally secure.

The effectiveness of guidance services is thus very largely dependent upon their status in the pattern of school life. It is clearly essential that they extend not only to all pupils within the school but also to all levels within the school district or system, from the primary school to the high school and college.

3. *Guidance services involve many people.*

As we have indicated above, guidance is not the property and responsibility solely of a few specialists in a school system. Every teacher and every

administrator has a function in the school's guidance activity: administrators have the duty of planning a curricular and cocurricular program which meets the *common* needs of as many of the pupils as possible, and teachers have the responsibility for planning and carrying out an instructional program which recognizes the *individual* needs and problems of each student.

The administrator, as the official responsible for the entire educational effort of a school or system, must make sure that guidance needs are recognized and met. He is not necessarily a psychologist or curriculum expert, but he seeks out and employs educators qualified for such duties and sets into motion a school program which works to achieve the goals of the pupils as these are revealed by various school and community agencies. For example, in a town that was formerly the market center of a farming region and is now a manufacturing city in which industry has become the chief source of employment, the high-school program must provide courses which will prepare young people for jobs in factory offices, on assembly lines, and in shops. In addition, the curriculum will have to offer college preparation for all those youth who have the interest and the ability, both academic and economic, to continue their schooling. This group will grow in size with the change in the character of the community, since the families of the managerial and professional groups associated with industry value a college education highly.

The teacher, in contrast to the administrator, instead of focusing on overall school needs must concentrate on the individual pupil and his particular problems and objectives. For example, when a counselor helps a teacher to see that a certain pupil is under-achieving, it is the teacher's responsibility to help the pupil overcome whatever block is hindering him from achieving to capacity. If the pupil is bright, it may be that the classroom materials and procedures fail to challenge him. If he is foreign-born, has a language handicap, suffers from being rejected by the other children, and is failing in his work because of the resulting emotional turmoil, the teacher can help by inducing a popular child to befriend the troubled youngster, by bringing the class to appreciate the contributions to civilization which come from the foreign child's culture, and by providing group experiences which serve to develop empathy in the class. The variety of personal problems which prevent a pupil from achieving all he is capable of is, of course, endless, and methods for solving them are likewise many and varied. The point to be made here is that overcoming the blocks to learning is part of the teacher's responsibility, and here the counselor can render vital service.

In addition to the teacher, the counselor, and the administrator, other school personnel are involved in guidance efforts: the school nurse who dis-

covers a physical handicap such as an eye or ear defect and the school doctor who remedies the ill contribute, of course, to improving a pupil's performance and morale. School specialists in various departments—physical education, art, music, and others—the school psychologist, the school social worker, the attendance officer, vocational teachers, and coordinators also play important roles, each according to his particular competence, in the educative process. And, as we have already indicated, the guidance program also involves nonschool people and community organizations such as public-health, welfare, and recreation agencies and a variety of religious bodies.

4. *Community conditions affect organization.*

The organization of the school guidance program must take into account the services provided for children and youth by the community. In a community which has no recreation facilities, no organized program of youth services outside the school, and no or few private psychological and psychiatric consultants, the school may find it necessary to provide for these needs in its own guidance and general program. On the other hand, in a community which has youth centers, medical and mental health services—*i.e.*, Family Service Association, county mental health societies, etc.—or community-oriented youth programs, the school may provide a guidance service that utilizes and coordinates these nonschool services. Thus, one school system may be called upon to organize a school-operated child-guidance clinic and another to provide for the more effective utilization of such services as already exist in the community. The basic principle is that guidance services organized in the school system should take full cognizance of the fact that child-rearing and youth guidance involve the participation of many people in a community.

The parents, of course, are most important in this matter; the home is the focal point of child-rearing, and all other agencies are supplementary. How well the home succeeds in this responsibility varies with the interests and ability of the parents in providing for the growth needs of their children. In some cases, the home is rich in opportunities for a wide range of experience for young people: the farm home often provides for a full exploration of adult activities, particularly in developing work interests and skills—for example, in plowing and seeding and harvesting, in handling tools, implements, and motor machinery, in judging weather and soil, in dealing with hired hands and roadside customers. City homes, on the other hand, usually lack such opportunities for children; in fact, children in privileged homes are often, in this sense, deprived: watching a cowboy film on television does

not have the value of the actual experience of driving horses or tractors and milking cows. In city homes, one and often both parents are likely to be away at work much of the time and thus not present to guide children in tasks that are truly important to the well-being of the family. Children who lack opportunity for such tasks have fewer chances to develop a sense of competence and social worth. The school, as the most important outside agency participating in child-rearing, can perform its task well only with full knowledge of the home conditions of its students; with this knowledge it can make up for the omissions of and capitalize on the assets of experience provided by the home.

5. Leadership must be identified.

One frequently hears a teacher or school principal say, "All of us carry out guidance functions." Although it is true that guidance functions do pervade the entire school, nevertheless, if the guidance service is to develop as an esteemed and effective school service, leadership must be identified. This means that, in any educational system involving more than one school, a qualified person must be designated as the responsible officer for the coordination and development of guidance services. Many schools in which guidance is "the responsibility of every teacher" have given no consideration to certain essential guidance functions and have made no provision for the evaluation and further development of such services. Although certain group- and individual-guidance services are the responsibility of all school administrators and teachers, the failure to identify any one person as the leader or administrator of the program means that no coordinated, purposeful program exists.

The organizational charts of many school systems fail to make clear the interrelationships between guidance personnel and other school officers; and though such charts may list job-analysis statements of duties and qualifications for guidance workers, they fail to specify clearly the interrelationships of staff and line officers within the organization. Research in this aspect of guidance organization is notably deficient, and few data are available on the effectiveness of various organizational approaches to the development of system-wide school guidance services. However, the major findings of a recent study of school-district organization for guidance services in one state can be summarized as follows:

(1) All of the eleven cities under study provide some type of central organization for guidance services.

(2) The titles of the guidance specialists vary from the simple to the complex—for example, from "Visiting Counselor" to "Director of Child Guidance and Coordinator of Child Welfare."

(3) The guidance specialist is administratively responsible to an assistant superintendent in more than half the cities, but the responsibility is not clearly defined.

(4) The duties and responsibilities of the guidance specialist vary from the exercise of very little control to the exercise of a great deal of control in administrative matters.

(5) Lack of agreement is shown in the area of counselor or teacher-counselor at the building level. Counselors are administratively responsible to the principal of their buildings; yet counseling activities are coordinated through the central staff office.

(6) All cities provide psychological services of some type.

(7) All cities provide home-instruction teachers.

(8) "Child guidance clinics" range in type from a single building case conference to a program of specialized services including psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, psychologists, and others.

* * *

It can be concluded from the extent of variation found in practically every one of these categories that as yet guidance services have not established any clear-cut identification. It may be that all of the school services other than classroom teaching, administration, and curriculum development show a tendency to be loosely gathered together and allocated to guidance. These cities give indication that guidance services may truly be considered a series of facilitative services.[15]

6. Provision must be made for implementation.

Many school administrators who express the idea that guidance is "the heart of our program" too frequently fail to give this "heart" time, space, budget, and personnel with which to operate. If individual counseling is to be an important school function, the school must provide qualified counselors with time and facilities in which to work efficiently. Counseling is at least a moderately specialized service and cannot be carried on effectively in the classroom or hallway, or with insufficient funds. Guidance must be respected in the school budget and in the selection and assignment of personnel and must have an identifiable place in the school plant and in the organizational structure.

[15] Ruby Dean Harris, *Patterns of Guidance Organization*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1949. By permission of the author.

Providing guidance services must not be merely incidental to the educational program but must enter into realistic basic planning. It is vitally important for the requirements of effective guidance services to be held in mind when construction of the school plant is being planned and the budget apportioned. The development of pupil records, of an adequate occupational-information service, of counseling services for in-school youth—each of the various guidance activities requires its own appropriate materials, personnel, and facilities of space and equipment. Such facilities must be planned in advance and provided for in the budget.

A guidance program may need such personnel as psychologists, social workers, and psychiatric consultants who do not meet the usual teacher certification requirements. Implementing the program may necessitate setting up special provisions for employing such individuals.

7. *Organization must be fluid.*

The need for clear organization should not obscure the equally important need of the guidance service for flexibility. Since the needs of students vary with time and place, the guidance program—designed to fill these needs—must be prepared to change. For example, a school may establish a guidance program in a community whose young people need to be assisted in gaining work experience; but within a few years employment conditions in the community may change in such a way that the common youth problem becomes that of adjusting to a wealth of work-experience opportunities. The guidance program should be flexible enough to meet such changing needs as they arise.

Population changes in a community frequently make it imperative that the school establish new programs of services. During the last decade many communities have doubled in population while others have decreased. Frequently these population changes also alter the composition of the community group. In some communities the arrival of many young parents vastly increases school enrollment at all levels. Population changes bring changes in types of industries and occupations and make new and different demands upon education and training facilities. The newcomers may also bring in different values regarding education and child rearing. In one town, for example, the average intelligence of the school children was always above the national average; but as the result of a large population increase, the schools now have to educate a large influx of pupils in the dull-normal group. For these pupils, of course, a modification of the curriculum and of teacher expectancies and relationships is required. The new parents in the

community naturally make their own necessary demands upon the schools, which must still meet the continuing requirements of the original parent group.

Summary

Psychology has become an empirical science with increasingly precise methods for assessing the needs and characteristics of individuals; and sociology, too, is enabling us to understand more clearly the roles of individuals in the functioning of our society. The result is that the behavioral sciences are today providing us with increasingly sensitive skills for working with individuals. Such aids are becoming more important than ever before because of the crucial changes which have taken place in our schools, especially on the secondary level. A far larger proportion of our greatly increased population of youth now requires education, and guidance services must meet the needs not merely of pupils preparing for specific vocations and professions but of all pupils. Counseling is no longer focused only on finding careers for young people; its aim is to help them overcome blocks to learning through improved mental and emotional health. It is important for pupils to realize that the guidance services exist to aid all of them, not merely the deviates, the handicapped, and the seriously disturbed, for all young people at one time or another face crises and must make difficult decisions.

Guidance is a facilitative service: it does not undertake to carry out the objectives of educational programs; rather, it attempts to provide aids to pupils and staff—to help pupils determine the courses most appropriate to their needs and abilities, find instructors who will be most sympathetic to their individual requirements, and seek out activities which will help them realize their potentialities. Such services involve many people: the administrator, teacher, counselor, school nurse and doctor, vocational instructors, specialists in music, art, drama, physical education, and others. Nonschool personnel, too, play important roles in the over-all guidance effort: members of public-health, welfare, and recreation agencies and of religious organizations.

An effective guidance program must have a clear statement of its functions and an organization which provides for the administration of these functions. Qualified personnel must be employed, and provision must be made for the time, space, and materials which make it possible for these workers to be effective. Leadership which is qualified as to competence and as to status within the total school organization is also vitally necessary for the establishment of a worth-while program.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. In the light of present-day efforts to find the best vocation for each individual, appraise the custom of a century ago of apprenticing young boys to masters from whom they would learn a trade. Compare the old apprenticeship customs with the organized apprenticeship programs in use today.

2. Prepare a list of the professional organizations for counselors which are active in your region, and indicate the membership qualifications required by each. Of what value are such activities to the school counselor?

3. Of what importance to the school is information concerning the annual replacement and expansion needs of industries and occupations? How can guidance and instructional workers articulate their efforts in adapting the school to meet such needs?

4. To what extent are federal funds used for subsidizing guidance services in your state? Are there state guidance officers or consultants? Are local school counseling programs subsidized? Of what importance is this aspect of the total guidance program in your state?

5. Have there been changes in the purposes and objectives of American colleges which correspond to the changes which this chapter indicates have taken place in the secondary school? Have these objectives been met by the development of new post-high-school institutions or by expanded programs and services within established institutions? Does your state have junior colleges? Discuss in detail their role in the educational framework.

6. An increased need for individualization of education has arisen at a time when classes are steadily increasing in size. Are teachers, in your

AND PROJECTS

opinion, using special techniques to meet this problem? Are school boards acting to reconcile the opposition between individualized instruction and larger classroom groups? Is your community aware of these contradictory trends?

7. A student transfers from an out-of-state school to a local one six weeks after the semester has started. He is interviewed and assigned to classes by the grade counselor. What other steps can the counselor take to facilitate the boy's smooth induction into the new school?

8. If the guidance program is to serve all students, should appointments with the counselor be initiated by the counselor, the teacher, or the student? Assume that a counselor has three counseling hours per day and serves a group of 250 students. Propose a plan for handling interview appointments.

9. Are there students in school who do not need counseling? Are there some kinds of problems which all pupils, even the most "normal," face? Establish your position on this matter and discuss it.

10. In what way can a specialized department of a school—physical education, art, music, industrial arts, and others—make a contribution to the school guidance program? Choose the one of these fields in which you are most interested and discuss its possible role in a guidance effort—for example, how can a dramatics program help shy students develop poise?

11. Using as a subject a school that you are quite familiar with, prepare an organization chart which indicates responsibilities and duties for all

leadership positions. Discuss it in terms of the organizational principles which have been expressed in this chapter.

UNION HIGH SCHOOL
PLAN OF ORGANIZATION
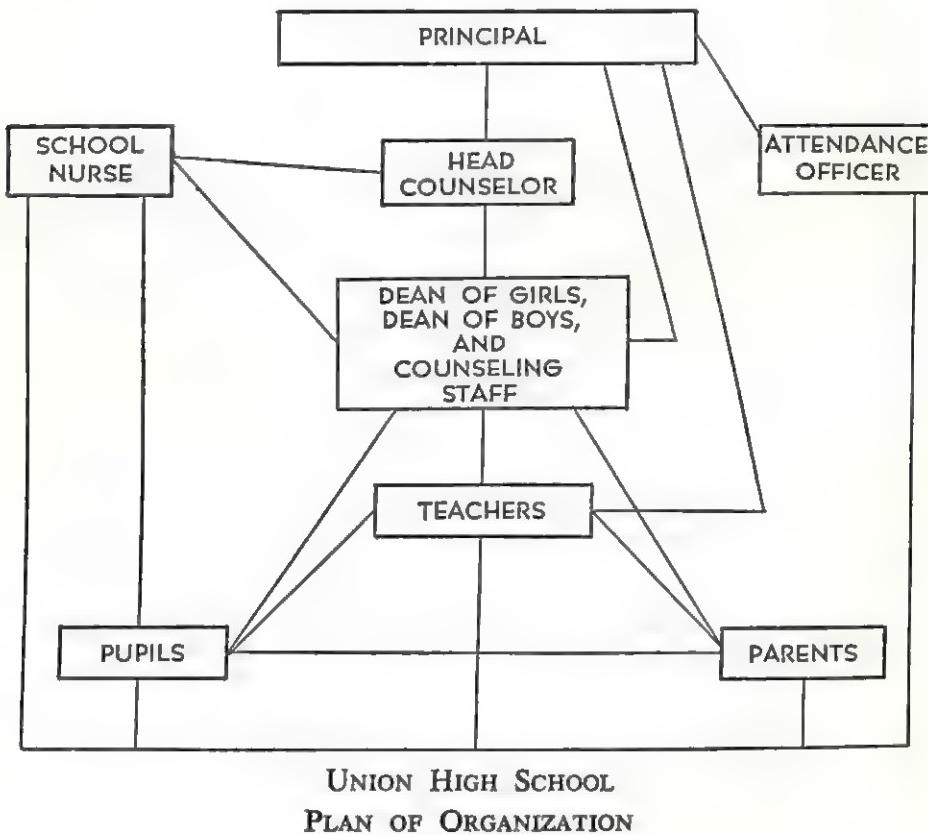
12. Should leadership for both guidance and curriculum be the responsibility of one individual? Are these two major school functions so interrelated that unified leadership is imperative? Are the qualifications and competencies required for each of these fields sufficiently different so that it would be unreasonable to expect to find one person who would be fully qualified in both? Discuss these points and their implications.

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Guidance in the Elementary School

GUIDANCE AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

RESPONSIBILITY FOR GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL

RELATING SCHOOL PRACTICES TO CHILD NEEDS

THE PROGRAM OF CHILD STUDY

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

ALTHOUGH THE EARLY EMPHASIS of the guidance movement on vocational or college-entrance preparation largely confined the establishment of formal school guidance programs to the secondary level, it has come to be recognized that a guidance program has an equally significant, although different, function on the elementary level. The needs and problems of young children differ, of course, from those of adolescents, and the organization of elementary schools differs from that of secondary schools. These differences necessarily influence the nature of elementary-school guidance services.

From scientific findings over the past fifty years a series of principles may be derived which pertain to the whole area of child rearing and education and apply specifically to guidance services in the elementary school. These propositions are neither new nor revolutionary; they are restated here in the form in which they are most applicable to guidance work in elementary schools.

Guidance and Child Development

1. *There is a regular, orderly sequence of growth, development, and maturation through which each child must pass—at his own rate of progress.*

The sequence of growth is so nearly uniform, so almost predictable, that it is possible to generalize quite accurately concerning children's physical characteristics and behavior patterns at different ages. Parents, new parents especially, eagerly consult such works as *The Child from Five to Ten* to determine whether their child's development corresponds with the established norms: whether his teeth appear on schedule, whether he walks at the usual age, whether his progress in speech is standard.[1]

Despite the general predictability of development, individual variations are also normal. The thin child who walks at ten months does not necessarily have an advantage over the heavy child who walks at fifteen months. There is a wholly normal variation in growth and maturation between boys and girls: seventh-grade girls are becoming "boy-crazy," whereas seventh-grade boys are still indifferent to girls. Variation in growth and maturation among different members of the same sex is also normal: the onset of puberty may normally vary, both among boys and among girls, by as much as three or four years. The many aspects of physical and social growth of one individual may proceed at different rates, so that great precocity in one area is counterbalanced by great immaturity in another. Even in mere physical growth it may occur, for example, that the trunk lengthens while the legs are still short.[2]

2. *Each child, from birth, must meet not only biological demands but also cultural traditions which require that he learn to transform his naive, impulsive behavior into behavior that conforms to the accepted patterns of his culture.*

The infant, of course, is allowed every possible freedom; but, as he grows into babyhood, childhood, and adolescence, society, represented by the adults who guide his development, begins to impose restrictions upon his behavior. The crawler, the toddler, the school child, and the adolescent learn to inhibit their impulsive wishes because of the insistent parental "Don't!" We don't push vases off tables. We don't empty our plate of pablum on the rug. We don't step off the curb. We don't pull the cat's tail. We don't hit the neighbor's child on the head with a shovel and take his

[1] Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, *The Child from Five to Ten,* Harper and Brothers, 1946.

[2] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools,* 1950 Yearbook, Chap. IV.

toy truck. We don't sit and continue watching television when elders come in. We don't drive cars until we have a license. We don't stay out after midnight. We don't . . . don't . . . don't. . . .

The process is not without regression and conflict. Often the *don't* of the parent conflicts with and loses out to the *do* of the peer group: we smoke corncob pipes; we sample the beer in the refrigerator; we raid an apple orchard or melon patch; we stay out past midnight; we use four-letter words. But even such rebellion is to some extent normal and necessary; it is, in a sense, part of the weaning process, of the fraying of the bonds of dependency to make possible the gradual process of achieving self-reliance.

3. *The young child needs a full measure of the "psychological vitamins" of comfort and assurance of unconditional love and protection in home, school, and community.*

It is human to err, and some of our learning must come through trial and error. The child must feel that no matter how bad he has been, how costly the damage he has caused, his parents' love for him will not be withdrawn. By extension he learns, if he is fortunate, that adults in general are not his enemies but his friends—that teachers, the school principal, and the crossing policeman, even when they give him orders to wait, to pick up, to put back, are his friends, each deeply and sincerely interested in his welfare.

4. *Whatever modes of meeting problems and tasks are established in early childhood set the pattern by which the adolescent and adult will meet the successive forms of problems that will confront him throughout his life.*

The methods of adaptation by which children come to terms with the tasks and problems of life and the reactions which they develop constitute the process of personality development. Everyone is familiar with the socially unacceptable, personally demoralizing, and unrealistic responses with which some children meet their problems. Frustration especially evokes immature reactions. Many a child responds to an unsuccessful attempt to put an old clock back together, to build an Eiffel Tower with a new erector set, to ride a bicycle, to make mother neglect the baby and give him undivided attention, with temper tantrums—with howls and tears and flailing fists and kicking feet. At the other extreme is the child who meets frustration by retreat, by shrinking away from rebuff, by cowering back into a dark corner of self-doubt and self-pity. The latter, instead of becoming unrealistically angry and throwing tantrums, becomes unrealistically fearful. In either case, the individual is meeting an ordinary circumstance with extraordinary feeling. If the patterns persist, the tantrum-thrower will become the man whose face turns apoplectic and whose fists

pound a desk when he meets a difficulty, whereas the retreating child will become the lonely, introverted, self-centered adult, tense with anxiety and easily defeated in any enterprise, who withdraws from a world which he believes to be unfriendly.

The child who wheedles adults for help and bribes his peers in order to gain acceptance may become an adult who uses charm as social leverage to achieve his desires. A related trait is nagging, which an occasional child finds so successful that he insists, pleads, whines, and scolds until he erodes the resistance of his susceptible elders. In adulthood, such a person may be demanding and stubborn and insensitive. The young person who is unable to accept his inadequacies realistically will attempt to rationalize his lacks with excuses and falsehoods. If he does not change his pattern of behavior, he may become an adult who responds to every failure, regardless of how trifling or unavoidable, with excuses and rationalizations.

These highly simplified examples of children's responses to difficulties are abnormal only when the response is extreme and manifested persistently. Although everyone has occasionally shown some or all of these reactions, most people mature beyond childish, highly emotional patterns of behavior. The results of failure to mature are seen in adults who are consistently hostile, anxious, dependent, lonely, or withdrawn, in rationalizers, and in extreme introverts.

Why do some people mature and others not? To learn better ways of coming to terms with circumstance, to learn to modify his behavior and to control his feelings, an individual must go through a process of growth and change. Lawrence Frank describes this process as follows: As the child grows into adolescence and then adulthood, he must continually mature in his ways of relating himself to life. During this process of altering and revising his modes of response he does not eliminate emotions but acquires an increasing ability to handle them. In making the transition from the early, childish patterns of feeling and acting about a problem, several steps are usually involved: the old pattern of behavior must be relinquished, a new and better pattern must be adopted, and the individual must be able to tolerate the uncertainty and emotional stress accompanying the effort. Some people can make only a few such transitions, and many people fail in making some of them, with the result that childish behavior patterns are retained, perhaps in symbolic fashion, and may produce areas of emotional conflict.[3]

5. *Among the crucial life problems which all individuals must meet are acceptance of early dependence and the subsequent development of inde-*

[3] Lawrence K. Frank, *Feelings and Emotions*, Doubleday and Co., 1954.

*pendence and a mature role in a democratic society, and the revision of
childhood self-concepts and fantasies and their reconstruction in accordance
with the individual's actual potentialities and limitations.*

This means, in essence, that the individual must look ahead realistically,
accepting himself for what he is and accepting the achievements his
potentialities can reasonably promise him. He must gradually overcome
dependence upon his parents, achieve tolerant acceptance of others, orient
himself to the future, and willingly accept the responsibilities that a career,
marriage, and parenthood will increasingly bring upon him. This statement
expresses, in highly abridged form, the concept of developmental tasks.
Despite individual differences, all children have certain common growth
needs to which the term *developmental tasks* has come to be applied.

Before schools can help children to achieve adulthood healthy in mind
and body, before we can give them the full benefit of our educative efforts,
we must know how children grow and develop; we must know the typical
stages and steps by which young people mature. The concept of develop-
mental tasks provides guidelines to direct us in using our knowledge of
human behavior in dealing with children in our schools.[4]

It may be helpful to list here the developmental tasks of two periods of
the growing-up process.[5]

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF MIDDLE CHILDHOOD
(1) Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
(2) Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
(3) Learning to get along with age-mates.
(4) Learning an appropriate sex role.
(5) Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing and calculating.
(6) Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
(7) Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.
(8) Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE
(1) Accepting one's physique and accepting a masculine or feminine role.
(2) New relations with age-mates of both sexes.
(3) Emotional independence of parents and other adults.
(4) Achieving assurance of economic independence.

[4] Caroline Tryon and Jesse W. Lilienthal III, "Developmental Tasks: I. The Con-
cept and Its Importance," in *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, 1950 Yearbook
of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., Chapter VI.
See also Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education*, University of
Chicago Press, 1948.
[5] William E. Martin and Celia Burns Stendler, *Child Development*, Harcourt, Brace
and Co., 1953, pp. 275 ff.

(5) Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
(6) Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
(7) Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
(8) Preparing for marriage and family life.
(9) Building conscious values in harmony with an adequate scientific world-picture.

Generally speaking, when a young person fails to meet all his developmental tasks, he becomes an individual with a problem. The boy who cannot play baseball with his gang, the girl who remains a tomboy after her age-mates are starting to use rouge and are engrossed in parties and dances, the young man who has no idea of what vocation to adopt as a career—these are examples of individuals with problems based on failure to achieve their developmental tasks at the proper time. The teacher and counselor who are aware of these needs can focus upon helping young people to meet them much more purposefully than can the adult who has only a vague and permissive kindliness to offer. The term *permissiveness* means, of course, acceptance of a child as he is, but the counselor, in his acceptance of the child, must also accept the need of the young person to accomplish his developmental tasks.[6] The young man who is vocationally adrift needs guidance in sampling different types of work; the tomboy needs to read and talk about the role of a woman; the boy who lacks athletic skills needs training and opportunity to develop whatever physical potentials he possesses—and if he has none, to appreciate and refine other aptitudes he may have.

6. *Mental health is not an inherited possession; whether the individual attains and maintains it depends upon how he meets the successive demands of his life.*

Everyone is familiar with individuals whose characteristic patterns of relating to others are suspicion, cynicism, and hostility; or aloofness and pessimism; or authoritarianism; or warm acceptance, holding no reservations and no wariness, making allowances and cherishing no grudges, not bothering to count change or demand references. Not only do separate personalities, as expressed in characteristic ways of reacting to circumstance, range over the whole continuum from fearing life to loving it, but individuals shift back and forth along this continuum in a degree that depends upon their emotional stability.

Personality, expressed in one's characteristic ways of thinking, believing,

[6] Virginia Mae Axline, *Play Therapy*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947, p. 142 ff., and Fannie and George Shaftel, "Role-Playing the Problem Story," An Intergroup Education Pamphlet, National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1952, p. 30.

acting, and feeling, develops as one matures and experiences life. Whether the individual attains emotional equilibrium or achieves a less satisfying adjustment depends upon the experiences he meets in life, not upon inherited qualities. Maintaining mental health requires a sense of values that is reasonable in its expectations. Unreal aspirations, a compulsive drive to succeed, fears and repressions that cause anxiety and tension—all are threats to emotional equilibrium.

7. *The family is the primary agent for transmitting cultural traditions from one generation to the next.*

What the members of the family do to and for the child and the manner in which they do it will be the matrix out of which the child's individual personality develops.

It is commonly recognized that modes of overt behavior are transmitted from father to son; for example, many men, asked why they vote Republican, will say, "Because my father was a Republican." Many people belong to a specific religious denomination because their families belonged; ways of celebrating Christmas, Easter, even the New Year and the Fourth of July are usually governed by family custom.

It has been further established by psychological research that personality patterns and the more generalized modes of response are learned largely within the context of family life.[7] A child who is smarting under a severe scolding will tell himself that he will never shout at *his* children when he grows up. Time passes; he marries and has children. One day as he is scolding his son he recalls with a flush of guilt his childhood promise to himself. Patterns of behavior acquired in childhood are often difficult to change.

8. *When a child enters elementary school, he encounters a series of new demands and potential frustrations. For the first few years of school especially, he should be given every possible help in adjusting to these new life situations.*

At school the child faces demands that he arrive on time, that he perform certain required tasks, that he be quiet and cooperative, that he stay in the classroom until dismissed and wait until lunchtime to eat—that he conform, in short, to a many-faceted pattern of discipline which may be far different from the carefree whim-indulging home life to which he is accustomed.[8] He may adapt to the new routines easily and gracefully, or he may resent and resist them and so create difficulties for himself, his classmates, and his teacher. A teacher who recognizes the stress imposed upon

[7] James H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Child Development*, Harper and Brothers, 1948, Chapter 3.

[8] *Ibid.*, Chapter 20.

the child by the new situation can help him to understand that taking turns does not mean deprivation; that playing with other children on a common project not only is possible but is fun; that it is better to ask than to take and to request than to demand. Discipline should be flexible enough to make allowances for short attention spans, restlessness, fatigue, the time factor necessary in achieving self-control, and the reflection in classroom behavior of pressures and tensions in the home. The hungry or sleepy child, the child who leaves home in a bad frame of mind, heavy-hearted with guilt and self-blame or fearful and edgy with resentment, will be a difficult pupil until he has had a chance to drop the emotional burden which which he arrived.

Responsibility for Guidance in the Elementary School

The guidance program in the elementary school has two major responsibilities: (1) to develop a wholesome, positive mental-hygiene program which recognizes the basic realities of child growth and development and which extends into all aspects of school organization and responsibility, and (2) to develop regular procedures for dealing with the personality and behavior disorders of children early enough to ensure progress toward improving those disorders.

At the elementary-school level, guidance is not a special-services program; rather it permeates the work of every teacher. The organization of the classroom, the activities on the playground, the physical environment of the school—all are of major importance to the guidance effort. A rigid classroom in which seats are screwed to the floors and rules of discipline are equally inflexible is a more demanding, more taxing environment for the small child than a classroom in which children can be organized into small, congenial working groups and can move about and indulge in a limited amount of conversation as they cooperatively plan their work. A cramped, hard-surfaced playground is less congenial and more likely to produce disciplinary problems than a spacious playground that can provide room for the variety of sports, folk dances, and running games necessary to meet the interests and requirements of active young people.

Parent and teacher morale also vitally influences children's attitudes toward school. Parent criticism of teachers is reflected in pupils' classroom behavior; teachers who are troubled and tired are often unwittingly cross, sarcastic, and intolerant. Either condition can make the climate for learning less favorable.

Guidance Services of the Classroom Teacher

The following outline summarizes briefly the elements of the classroom teacher's functioning in the school program which are of special concern to the guidance worker in the elementary school.

Organization of groups and curriculum: The social and subject-matter context of the learning situation should be organized so as to make the optimal contribution to the wholesome personality development of each child. The teacher should strive to

(1) place children in the grade, class, and experience groupings that will provide the most helpful learnings;
(2) make adequate special provision for pupils who are superior, retarded, physically handicapped, or socially maladjusted, by furnishing easy reading materials for the retarded and more challenging materials for the gifted, pairing socially maladjusted and isolated pupils with popular pupils to improve their social relations, and so on;
(3) establish special groups in remedial reading, arithmetic, speech.

Classroom and playground activities: Activities planned for the playground as well as for the classroom should contribute to the mental health of the pupils. Teachers should

(1) provide happy, spontaneous, and constructive recreational experiences for all children;
(2) provide opportunity for leadership and initiative in classes, clubs, and student government;
(3) provide opportunities for every child to experience some recognition and success each day;
(4) give proper attention to student interest and motivation in learning;
(5) provide opportunities for creative self-expression;
(6) provide learning experiences which are suited to the maturation levels, interests, and needs of individual pupils.

Physical environment: The physical appearance of the school building and grounds should be conducive to mental health. Teachers should provide:

(1) pleasantness, cleanliness, and cheerfulness of surroundings;
(2) centers of interest which command attention and appreciation;
(3) functional arrangement of the classroom which will contribute to a sense of orderliness and balance;
(4) attractiveness and neatness in her own dress and appearance.

Relations with over-all guidance program and specialized guidance workers: The work of the classroom may be facilitated and the optimal growth of each pupil ensured by relating both to an over-all guidance and testing program. The teacher should

(1) help school personnel to judge pupil adjustment on the basis of physical, emotional, and social status as well as academic achievement;

(2) use as extensively as possible the services of specialists who may assist in understanding pupil needs (school nurse, counselor-psychologist, speech therapist, audiometrist);

(3) use objective appraisals of progress, such as tests and rating scales, to check subjective judgments;

(4) keep adequate records of the growth and development of each child so that progress may be appraised over a period of years.

Relations with parents: The guidance program should be interpreted to parents in order that the mental-health philosophy of the school will be reflected in a cooperative parent attitude. The school should endeavor to ensure that

(1) parents gain a sympathetic knowledge and understanding of what is going on in the school;

(2) parents understand and accept the system of pupil evaluation;

(3) parents understand and accept the plan for reporting pupil progress to the home;

(4) study classes are available to parents which will clarify the work of the school and aid in their understanding of the principles of child growth and development;

(5) the PTA operates as an intrinsic part of school life;

(6) teachers are friendly and hospitable in their relations with parents.

Relations with community: The school guidance program should participate in and cooperate with related community activities in order to broaden and coordinate the services offered to the pupils. School personnel should

(1) refer serious behavior and emotional problems to the specialists in the community;

(2) cooperate with the family-welfare agencies in the community;

(3) become involved in the after-school recreational and other welfare programs offered by the community to children;

(4) cooperate with youth organizations in the community (Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and so on).

Three Case Studies: Emotional Blocks to Learning

HOWARD. In the following case study, Howard, a thirteen-year-old, is helped toward a solution of his problems by the efforts of the school to provide him with some success, recognition, and opportunity for creative self-expression (see items 2 and 5 under "Classroom and playground activities" above). Howard exemplifies the pupil of average ability whose failure in his schoolwork may be attributable to the disturbances of a bad home situation.

Howard is a short, heavy-set boy in the eighth grade. He is the youngest of four brothers in his family. Two of the boys are grown and married; the third, although only one year older than Howard, does not associate with him, possibly because he is so much more mature than Howard that they have nothing in common, or because he is ashamed of Howard. Howard is not mentally retarded, however. Achievement and intelligence tests indicate that his ability is a little better than average.

Howard's parents accept him as their child, but otherwise they show no interest in him. His mother is interested only in traveling with his father and often leaves Howard in the charge of a housekeeper for months at a time. This occurred once during Howard's seventh year in school, when his parents took a prolonged business and pleasure trip to Hawaii. Left at home, Howard felt neglected and forgotten. This incident is indicative of his general relations with his parents, who simply are not much interested in the boy and have neither time nor inclination to associate with him very much. Howard feels this rejection very acutely.

The result is that he is emotionally very unstable, and at school he often cries when events occur which are not routine and expected. Although he is accepted by his peers, he is not popular; when choices are made in sociometric situations, he is an isolate.

At school he associates with his elders much of the time. He often assists teachers after school hours, and before school opens in the fall he works many hours helping janitors, teachers, and administrators in various ways. In the eighth grade his greatest satisfaction comes from being responsible for the physical-education equipment and hence being regarded as an indispensable person in the daily operation of the school. He needs status and a sense of personal worth which he does not obtain in his own family circle.

Howard is interested in the school musical activities. This year he entered competitive tryouts for the glee club and was accepted, to his intense gratification. For the first time in his life he is taking trumpet lessons, in

preparation for admission to the marching band, which is his great ambition at this stage.

His classwork has not been satisfactory, although he could be an above-average student if his home life were more normal and wholesome. Such improvement as he has made can be attributed to the rise in his morale caused by his success in the glee club. Continued success and opportunities to engage in other activities in which he might be successful may result in increasingly able performance in schoolwork and further improvement in his morale.

DAVID. This case study provides an example of a fifth-grade pupil whose failure in his schoolwork is caused by personal difficulties even more serious than those Howard faced. In addition to unhappy parental relations and a poverty-stricken home, David has language difficulties stemming from his Mexican background.

David's IQ is 77, and he is doing extremely poor work in his classroom. It is difficult to determine whether he is actually mentally retarded or whether his backwardness is caused by economic deprivation—his family is so poor that he has lacked the advantages of the child of average economic means.

David, a fifth-grader, is eleven. His parents are divorced, and his mother remarried, leaving the boy to live with his grandmother, who had little control over him. After the police found him loitering around a gas station at one o'clock in the morning, the juvenile authorities insisted that he be removed from his grandmother's home and placed in the custody of his mother. David prefers to be with his mother, even though he is then under stricter control. The home, supported by David's stepfather, a laborer, is very poor. David seldom mentions his stepfather or his real father in his conversation; they neglect and reject him, and perhaps he suppresses his feelings about them. He has one warm relationship: one of his younger stepbrothers admires him a great deal, and this admiration seems to puzzle David.

For years David came to school wearing very dirty clothes, and many layers of them. In the third grade his prize possession was a stocking cap. His third-grade teacher was able to persuade him to remove the cap during class, but the many layers of sweaters and coats remained. After he entered the fifth grade, he began to wear fewer layers of clothing and blossomed out in brightly colored homemade shirts of which he was very proud. He continues to wear cowboy boots of a heavy type, which give him an unusual walk and make running difficult.

His physical coordination has improved as he has grown older, but he is

still a slow-moving boy. It may be that a poor diet has left him somewhat undernourished.

David's school experience has been anything but successful. On the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, he scored 77. He has accomplished little academically. His mother has a fine handwriting, and he occasionally tries to improve his own. The family speaks both Spanish and English. Although his bilingual background does not seem to interfere with his speech, he has great difficulty with other tasks involving language, such as reading and spelling. His ability in arithmetic is centered around simple addition and subtraction; he is able to handle money ideas successfully. His art work shows an unusual color sense and a tendency toward garishness.

David is not always sure of what is acceptable social behavior. He loves excitement and is fully able to create exciting situations; he seems, in fact, to gravitate toward such situations, perhaps without deliberate intention. He often finds himself in trouble without really knowing how he got there. He is ever ready to defend himself against anything which he considers a slander, though he is not touchy or truculent. He enjoys comedy, especially slapstick.

All the teachers at the large school David attends know the boy and are aware of at least some of his problems, although they do not all agree as to how to solve them. The school has helped him, to some extent, toward adjustment. He has learned to take pride in his artistic ability and in such other aptitudes as he possesses. A teacher helped him to become a Cub Scout, and to him this is a very real achievement. The home of the Den Mother is a sort of paradise for him. Though his adjustment to group activity is slow and limited, he has made some progress. David's difficulties are fairly common among children of his national background who have similar economic and linguistic difficulties, though in his case they are aggravated by his family's especially unsettled condition.

CARRIE. The following study concerns a child who presented a rather unique behavior problem. At the age of five her I.Q. was 142 on the basis of the individual Stanford-Binet, indicating that she was exceptionally bright. The nursery-school report upon which the case study is based dates from this time. In Carrie's case, we do not know what the school as a whole and her individual teachers may have done to help her accept herself and her peers. If the subsequent school environment has been congenial and supportive, she may have adjusted her behavior to conform to more socially acceptable patterns; but if school has since been a disturbing experience, she may have retreated even further into daydreaming fantasy.

Carrie would never admit that she was Carrie: she was usually a bird

or a duck. Sometimes she was the newspaper boy or an older girl named Jean. She usually "flew" into school in the morning, flapping her wings and often quacking. (She was five years old at this time.) Other children definitely regarded her as strange and for the most part left her alone. Once in a while she made a very tentative approach at social contact, but for the most part she really seemed to have resigned herself to a life of fantasy and dreams.

Her interest in and knowledge of nature was unusual for her age. She made up poems and songs about ducks and birds. In appearance she was neat and bright, though physically unattractive and awkward. When frustrated or teased, she completely lost control and would scream again and again in an unusually piercing voice. In fact, because of her unusual and unpredictable behavior, she had been excluded from her Sunday-school class.

Her mother was much concerned about Carrie and was developing some insight into her problems. The mother longed for another child, but her husband was so upset by the difficulties of their first child that he was unwilling to face the task of rearing another. She felt that the father rejected Carrie.

The mother explained that Carrie's ability in speech had developed early, but in walking and climbing she had been unusually slow in developing. Children had laughed at her clumsy efforts to follow them when they ran away from her. As an example of the kind of teasing Carrie had been subjected to, the mother related the following incident: Some neighborhood boys had made Carrie their lookout in a cowboy game. It turned out that the "lookout" sat on the hill while the cowboys showered rocks on her from above. It was no wonder that Carrie, receiving this kind of treatment, increasingly withdrew from the other children and became a lonely, daydreaming child. She became intensely attached to a duck which her parents bought her as a pet. The duck followed her everywhere, didn't laugh at her clumsy ways, and didn't throw things. Later, Carrie's flying into her kindergarten and quacking like a duck were, perhaps, a sort of identification with the only "friend" she had ever had.

Relating School Practices to Child Needs

The teacher, who works and plays and lives with a group of children, is the primary force in a child's school life. All other school services are supplementary and facilitative and must be keyed to the basic plan of

the teacher working with a class of pupils. Among such services are the following:

(1) Pupil personnel records.
(2) Test and evaluation program.
(3) In-service training programs for teachers and administrators.
(4) Facilities for handling school attendance and the employment of minors.
(5) Parent-education programs.
(6) School case-work programs for the study of the individual child.
(7) Facilities for the coordination and cooperation of school and community agencies in the study of children's problems.

The personnel involved in a guidance program include the principal, the teacher, the school nurse and school physician, the visiting teacher and the guidance specialist or specialists. Each has his unique and vital role to play.

The *principal* should serve as the chairman of the guidance program in the elementary school. The success of the program will depend upon his willingness to assume leadership, the breadth of his understanding of the guidance point of view, and his ability to educate his community to guidance needs and to gain the support of his board of education in setting up increasingly adequate guidance services.

The *teacher*, because of her daily personal contact with the child, is the key person in the program. *All services should therefore be directed toward helping the teacher to understand how she may better provide for each child.* Every effort should be made to keep the teacher fully informed concerning guidance activities, particularly those which concern individual children under her supervision.

The *school nurse* and *school physician* can provide special medical services as well as valuable information from home contacts.

The *guidance specialist* has a twofold role: (1) that of helping the individual child referred to him for study and (2) that of helping the teacher and others in the school to understand more clearly from the study of each child's case not only the particular child but principles of child growth and development as well.

Although the specialist in the guidance field may belong to any one of many types—clinical psychologist, psychiatric social worker, speech therapist, psychiatrist—the important principle to be developed is that specialists see their role as involving the training of in-service teachers as well as service to the individual child with exceptional needs.

The Program of Child Study

The study of the individual child probably requires more time and effort than any other aspect of the guidance program. As a basis for work with individuals, it is a good practice for the specialist to administer a group intelligence test to all students in the first grade and subsequently in the third and sixth grades, so that a reliable picture of each child's ability can be obtained. When results of the group test indicate a need for it, an individual test should be administered.

In addition to the intelligence test, the appropriate personnel should prepare for each pupil a complete physical-examination report and a personal-social data sheet indicating family economic level and background, individual interests, and the child's own statement concerning his relations with his classmates and his parents. Although such a statement clearly cannot be objective, it can serve as a screening device for detecting possible difficulties and will be of use if the child is referred for special help. If possible, a report of an interview with the parents should be included on the data sheet.

A more detailed study should be made of any child referred by the teacher or observed by the guidance staff as needing special help. In such cases, study of the child should include not only an intelligence test but interviews, play sessions, and projective techniques if they are applicable to the specific case. The parents of all children referred for individual study should be consulted by the visiting teacher or the school psychologist. If psychotherapy is indicated, treatment should be a part of the program. The child referred for special help should also be observed in his group, and a sociometric analysis should be made of his relationship with his peers.

Our reference to the functions of individual *study* and individual *treatment* seems to imply that these are two aspects of the same process. In a sense this implication is accurate, for individual study of a child inevitably involves some treatment, which, if it is correctly administered, will benefit the child. A specialist will not and need not, however, accept for individual or group therapy all children whom he sees for individual study. In many cases, the behavior or other problem can be resolved or at least handled by the teacher or parents after its cause has been determined.

It should be emphasized, however, that in cases in which therapy is indicated and undertaken, its success is dependent upon the individual's basic desire to be helped. No good results can be achieved from forced psychological treatment. In addition, it should be noted that, as with other

diseases, the earlier the behavior disorders are detected and therapy undertaken or the environment readjusted, the greater the chances of resolving the difficulty.

Although the need for individual treatment of pupils is widespread, many parents cannot afford the services of outside specialists and, moreover, many are unaware of their children's problems. In such cases, the school must assume responsibility for enlisting the aid of community services or the cooperation of the parents. Such an undertaking is especially urgent if the child is so seriously disturbed as to be unresponsive to the provisions the teacher can make for him in the classroom and to require special professional attention in order to achieve any improvement at all. Many parents of children whose problems require special help do not understand the nature and goals of psychological services and resent any effort at treatment. To bring such parents to cooperate in the treatment of their child tests the skill of the guidance staff and the teacher.

It has been pointed out that the parents are the primary source of both support and frustration for the child and that children's problems frequently reflect the problems of their parents. Thus, effective treatment of the child frequently requires treatment not only for him but for one or both parents. If the child alone is treated and if there is no change in his environment, improvement in his situation may be short-lived and old problems may be succeeded by new ones. Therefore, if possible, the mother or father (and preferably both) should be persuaded by the visiting teacher or psychologist to accept therapy.

In all cases of treatment, a child psychiatrist should be available for consultation, and serious psychotic problems should be referred to him for final diagnosis and disposition. Since psychologists have not been given the status of licensed practitioners in most states, the school should, in order to protect itself legally, refer such cases to a psychiatrist for final diagnosis and consultation.

The Role of the Teacher

In the elementary grades teachers have unparalleled opportunities to study human behavior, and the extent to which each teacher is able to make use of these opportunities depends upon her training, experience, and insight. In-service training for the classroom teacher is a very important responsibility of the guidance specialist—not only because the teacher is a fundamental factor in the school life of the child but also because many teachers have not been trained to recognize and meet the emotional and social needs of children.

The purpose of this training is not to make of the teacher a skilled diagnostician or therapist but rather to acquaint her with the services she can and cannot expect from the guidance specialist; to help her to use the tools and opportunities which are available at the level of her skills and training; and to teach her how to keep accurate and significant records on each child. Examples of tools which the teacher may be trained to use are the sociogram, the "I wish ——" test, completion sentences, diaries, role-playing, and anecdotal records.

For in-service training, teacher-group meetings are helpful in conveying commonly needed technical information, and small groups have the advantage of encouraging each teacher to express opinions and feelings. Individual conferences between the teacher and the guidance specialist may sometimes be necessary to supplement the group meetings. Published material should be available for reading and discussion. As the members of the group become more at ease and acquire greater skill in case-study discussions, they can consider more individual cases. It should be a rule that the teacher of each of the counselor's cases be consulted and regularly informed regarding the child's treatment and progress. To succeed in helping children, the guidance specialist must receive the teacher's wholehearted cooperation.

The Role of the Guidance Specialist

The role of the elementary-school guidance specialist, as has been indicated, is primarily that of consultant to the teacher, the administrator, and the parent. But in addition he is specifically responsible for in-service training of teachers, individual study of children, counseling and therapeutic work, and the interpretation of school and child needs to the community. The first three functions have been described. The fourth is perhaps the most important in terms of the long-range goal of guidance—to convey mental-health information by means of public-relations work in the community at large.

The mere existence of a guidance program depends upon support from citizens and from the board of education. To receive not only initial but continuing support, guidance workers should maintain an active public-relations program. Furthermore, conveying the guidance workers' philosophy to the wider community is important because if good mental-hygiene principles can be taught to parents and accepted by them, the number of children requiring individual treatment will decrease enormously. But even to ensure the cooperation of the teachers with whom he must work, the guidance specialist must be skilled in the art of public relations.

The aims of a community-information program should be to create public support and enthusiasm for desirable child-rearing practices, to combat popular prejudice against psychological treatment, and to gain acceptance among laymen of the principle that a child who is emotionally disturbed has as valid a right to appropriate treatment as a child who has measles or a broken leg. A major problem in conducting such an information program is that those who are most in need of it are not interested enough to participate. Since the program's effectiveness depends upon voluntary participation, the solution to this problem is extremely difficult. If in many aspects of community life emphasis could be placed on mental hygiene and the value of the school guidance program, perhaps the majority in the community would participate willingly.

Trends in Elementary-school Guidance

There is, fortunately, a general trend among elementary schools to provide the type of service outlined above. Although the guidance programs of many school systems have been handicapped by public apathy, lack of trained personnel, and inadequacy of funds, most schools now provide some type of intelligence testing for their students, a growing number have access to the services of psychometricians, and many city districts have been able to obtain, at least on a part-time basis, the services of a clinically trained psychologist. A happy note also is the increasing emphasis in teacher-training courses on the emotional and social development of the child.

Summary

Although guidance programs were first established at the secondary-school level, it is recognized now that guidance has an equally important function at the elementary-school level. It is probably true that every young person needs support and advice from time to time in adjusting to his own biological changes and to the cultural demands made on him as he passes through the various stages of growth and development common to all of us. The methods by which children accomplish the tasks of life and solve its problems constitute the process of personality development and largely determine the behavior patterns of their adult lives. Mental health is not an inherited possession; whether the individual attains and maintains good

mental hygiene depends on how he meets the successive demands of his life. Obviously, therefore, the elementary-school years constitute a period of experience of great significance in determining what kind of individual each pupil will become.

When a child first enters elementary school, he encounters demands and potential frustrations that are new to him. For the first few years of school, especially, he needs help in adjusting to these demands. The school can provide such help by establishing a wholesome, positive mental-hygiene program which recognizes the basic realities of child growth and development and which sets up regular procedures for early coping with personality and behavior disorders. Facets of this program include placing children in the grade, class, and experience groupings best suited to their individual needs; providing adequate special opportunity for superior, retarded, physically handicapped, and socially maladjusted children; and establishing remedial groups in reading, arithmetic, speech, and other fields. Carefully planned playground activities, too, can contribute to the mental health of pupils.

A child may adapt to school routines easily or may resent and resist them and so create difficulties not only for himself but for his classmates and teacher. It is important, therefore, for the teacher to recognize the stress that a child experiences as a result of entering school and to help him adjust to its demands. Discipline should make allowances for short attention spans, restlessness, fatigue, underdeveloped self-control, and pressures and tensions in the home.

Among the services furnished by an elementary-school guidance program are the maintenance of pupil-personnel records, a testing and evaluation procedure, in-service training for teachers and administrators, provision for case-work study of the individual child, and a plan for cooperation of school and community agencies in the study of children's problems. The teacher is the key person in the school program: all services should therefore focus on helping the teacher to understand how to meet the needs of each pupil. The study of the individual child is the largest single aspect of the guidance program and involves intelligence testing, physical examinations, a personal-social data sheet for each pupil, referral of pupils to the guidance staff for special study involving interviews, play sessions, and projective techniques, consultations with parents by a school psychologist or visiting teacher, and, if psychotherapy is indicated, treatment for the child and possibly for one or both parents as well. It is also, of course, important for the guidance staff to perform the public-relations task of interpreting school and child needs to the community.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. What do you think of the following ways of stimulating motivation for learning in the classroom?
a. Dividing pupils into competitive teams.
b. Bestowing gold stars as rewards for individual achievement.
c. Imitating television quiz programs by starting pupils with equal sums of "money," deducting fines for mistakes, and giving rewards for achievement.

2. Recognizing the morale factor involved in grades, appraise the following standards for grading:
a. The degree in which each individual has realized his potentialities.
b. The pupil's academic or emotional need for a particular grade.
c. The quality of each pupil's work in relation to that of the other members of the class.

3. Play the roles indicated in the following situations:

You are Miss Ardon, teacher of the sixth grade. A parent demands to know why you gave her boy Andy, who has superior ability, a grade of B, whereas you gave Tommy, who is a slow dull-normal pupil, an A. You resent a layman's telling you how to teach, and you answer in detail and with vehemence.

You are the principal. You come to Miss Brawley, who has the fifth grade, and ask how Martha Ames is getting along. Miss Brawley plans to fail Martha. You tell her that Martha has been going through a very bad time at home—her parents are divorced, her mother has remarried, and Martha has a baby stepbrother. You tell her that

AND PROJECTS

Martha has done good work in the past, that she is very discouraged, and that failure would disturb her deeply. But to give her better grades than she has earned, Miss Brawley objects, would be unfair to the rest of the class. You try to convince Miss Brawley.

4. You have made a sociogram of a sixth-grade class by asking the pupils to select seatmates for a bus trip to the park. The sociogram revealed that there are four isolates in the group—children whom no one chose to sit next to. One isolate is a very bright and studious but socially withdrawn girl. Another is a mentally retarded boy—big and amiable, but a "side-liner"—and the third is a pushing, aggressive girl from a poor home. The fourth unchosen youngster is new to the school; his parents are migrant farm workers living in a tent on the edge of town. As the teacher, how can you help these four unchosen pupils make friends and win status in the group?

5. You are a supervisor. Visiting Miss Kagle's class, you realize that she is imposing strict discipline. You find that she is trying to establish a minimal level of achievement for the whole group in terms of quantity and time, and that this minimal level is unrealistically high. You realize that she motivates the pupils by "setting standards"—by providing a goal that is worthy of respect. How can you convince her that she has aspirations for the group which are not only unrealistic but even unfair?

6. You are an elementary-school principal. Mrs. Brady, a parent, comes to see you; she is irate. It seems that Miss Laine, the fourth-grade teacher, had come to visit her. "And she stared around my house like she was looking for stolen goods or something! And asking questions! What right

readers, (c) pupils retarded in arithmetic, (d) pupils with speech difficulties, (e) pupils with hearing difficulties, (f) pupils with physical handicaps (crippled, spastic, etc.)?

15. The following suggestions were made by a school committee considering the question of how to make parents become interested in the objectives, the program, and the problems of a school. Evaluate their suggestions.

a. Publish an informational handbook.
b. Have parents participate in special teaching experiences involving demonstration of special skills, travel reports, or special information.
c. Hold several kinds of parent meetings (at times convenient to parents): meetings of room mothers, general parent meetings, social meetings with such recreation as singing and folk dancing, meetings of groups to plan special class activities.
d. Send out teacher-student invitations to parents to visit the school.
e. Request help of parents for special school-aid projects, such as construction of special play equipment, hot-lunch program, preparation of a game area, and aid to needy children.
f. Invite citizen's groups to make studies of special problems in the school.
g. Develop a "guide to observation" for parents who visit the school.

16. Develop a plan for working with the parents of incoming pupils to make the beginning of school easier for children.

17. A guidance official has written: "No guidance program can be any stronger than the extent to which individual teachers *accept* each child, *accord him respect* as an individual, and *reflect warmth of feeling* for him."[9] Discuss what is meant by the italicized words in this quotation.

18. Discuss ways in which the elementary-school principal can (a) facilitate the guidance efforts of the teachers in his school and (b) educate his parent group regarding the nature of guidance needs.

19. Plan an in-service training program which will give teachers some degree of skill in recognizing guidance needs and working to meet them.

[9] William Coleman of the Tennessee State Testing and Guidance Program.

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Guidance in the Secondary School

PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL STUDENTS

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AMERICAN
SECONDARY SCHOOL

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM in the secondary school differs from that in the elementary school because both the institution and the student face different problems. The elementary-school child is essentially dependent upon one person: his school life centers about his relationship with one teacher at a time. At the secondary level, the two important differences are that the child has become an adolescent and the school is so organized that he is related no longer primarily to one teacher but to several different people in the course of each day. Quite suddenly, he faces the task of establishing more and new kinds of relationships. A greater degree of independence and the necessity for making choices are thrust upon him. To help him meet these new needs, a new kind of guidance program is required.[1]

[1] James H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Child Development*, Harper and Brothers, 1948, Chapter 20.

Problems of Secondary-School Students

In its physical aspects, adolescence is usually defined as the period of growth beginning with puberty and ending with adulthood. For many individuals, the secondary-school years do not completely span this stage of development, though they usually do include a large part of adolescent development. Typical secondary schools enroll students between the ages of thirteen and eighteen in the eight-four program and between the ages of eleven and eighteen in the six-three-three, or junior- and senior-high, organization. The onset of puberty has been estimated to occur, on an average, at about the age of eleven for American girls and at about the age of thirteen for American boys. Rather wide deviations from these norms occur among both sexes.

In our culture these important developmental phases mean, for each individual, changes not only physical but also psychological and social. Physically, the phase is characterized by rapid, uneven growth of various parts of the body which for many youngsters results in features that seem out of proportion—in arms and legs that are temporarily too long and hands and feet that are too big—in acne arising from glandular imbalance that will eventually right itself, in appetites that seem insatiable, in voices that change embarrassingly in mid-sentence, and in startling growth spurts that cause a youngster in a few months to shoot up a full head taller than a playmate who had so recently lorded it over him. An accompaniment of inner tumult makes adolescence an emotionally turbulent period for many young people.[2]

Sexual development brings new drives and uncertainties. The teen-ager is agonizingly self-conscious about his looks; the boy who so recently ignored mirrors now spends twenty minutes plastering his hair into place and wears his jeans with the belt line at the precise level on his hips and the cuffs at the precise height above his ankles dictated by his peer group. His fear of not being popular, or of being in some way different and possibly ridiculed, is often intense. Although on the surface adolescents are apt to be cocksure and to scorn adults vehemently, nevertheless, underlying the actions of most of them is a vast uncertainty about themselves and the future. They are anxious to settle confidently on a plan of work and of living for the years ahead, on patterns of ideals, and on standards of behavior. More immediately, they crave social ease and assurance, smooth manners, adeptness in group situations, and ease in getting along with

[2] Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, Rinehart and Co., 1949, Chapters 1-6.

others, especially with the other sex. Usually they are quite idealistic; they are loyal to their own group, and many of them, when given group responsibility by their peers, are conscientious and reliable.

Adolescents are sometimes prey to a tumultuous flux of emotions and to a swift pendulum action in their moods; often, because they lack control and consequently express their feelings violently, they suffer deep feelings of guilt and remorse. They seek independence of parents, of course, and this gradual growth of self-reliance is a vitally necessary step in each individual's development. It is often achieved at the cost of considerable inner stress, however, and of alternating episodes of cooperation with and defiant rebelliousness against adults. The lad who will amiably wash the family car one day may erupt in a mood of black, stormy abuse the next day because he cannot use the car on account of a parental priority. The swing of the pendulum may be abrupt; the high-school girl who announces one day that she will find a job and move into an apartment of her own will often regress, following a small concession to her wishes or the advent of a new problem, to become again the youngster who needs her mother's solace and support. In most cases it is beneficial to young people to know an adult they can admire wholeheartedly; and most of them are more likely to respond to the influence of a teacher or a group leader than to the influence of their own parents.[3]

Young people experience growth stages at varying ages and in varying fashions. The girl who shoots up in an early growth spurt to become taller than the other girls and even taller than the boys in her classroom is likely to suffer tormenting visions of herself as an individual so monstrously overgrown that romance will pass her by. And the boy whose friends gain four or five inches in height in a mere six months while he scarcely grows at all will similarly writhe in dismay, resenting the fate that dooms him to a smaller stature than his age-mates, until a belated growth spurt gives him added inches. Growth occurs in a variety of patterns. Girls may grow tall earlier, but on the average they are shorter than boys; rates of growth differ for groups, on the average, according to their different environments; and, of course, for the individual, heredity is an important factor of growth.[4]

The growth needs of young people during this period of development have already been referred to in earlier chapters as the "developmental tasks" of adolescence. A summarized list of these tasks follows:

[3] Gladys Gardner Jenkins, Helen Schacter, and W. W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children*, Scott, Foresman and Co., 1949.
[4] National Society for the Study of Education, *Forty-third Yearbook*, Part I, "Adolescence," 1944.

(1) The need to grow in responsibility and independence—to change from the dependent child into the self-reliant, resourceful, confident adult.

(2) The need to orient himself toward the future—to develop appropriate educational and vocational plans.

(3) The need to establish wholesome relationships with the opposite sex.

(4) The need to prepare for effective work and citizenship, to achieve an inner harmony between ideals and behavior, to understand and respect necessary authority, and to develop an individual conscience.

(5) The need to prepare for family responsibility—to develop the capacity to give and receive love and to subordinate his own desires to those of others.

(6) The need to develop a constructive philosophy of life—to accept himself, to acquire the tolerance and insight to accept others, to acquire a sense of proportion that enables him to accept criticism with good humor and good sense, and to be satisfied with moderation.[5]

Characteristics of the American Secondary School

The secondary school, as an integral part of the American school system, is intended to provide educational opportunities not for any special segment of the population but for all youth. Although the secondary school has many of the general characteristics and objectives of the elementary school, the two differ in several significant respects. Their differences imply the necessity for a guidance program adapted specifically to secondary-school needs. The typical secondary school is larger than the typical elementary school and brings together students from wider geographic and socioeconomic areas. Furthermore, the secondary school offers choice among learning experiences in many fields of knowledge: some high schools offer as many as sixty different courses. Operating on the principle that course offerings should be adapted to the widest possible variety of individual interests, the secondary school functions according to an elective system, whereby the student may choose those courses that best fit his pattern of interests. Thus the individual student has the responsibility for making his own decisions, for establishing goals, and for formulating plans to achieve them.[6]

The typical secondary school is organized on a departmental basis, and each student takes courses in several departments daily. The result is that

[5] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., 1950 Yearbook, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Chapters 6 and 7.

[6] D. Welty Lefever, Archie M. Turrell, and Henry I. Weitzel, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance* (rev. ed.), Ronald Press, 1950, Chapter 1.

each is responsible to several teachers for certain areas of his work and is no longer, as in elementary school, personally supervised by one teacher throughout the year. The learning situation is therefore more complex and more impersonal and makes greater demands on the student, since he must chart his own way through the rich variety of experiences offered to him. Not every student is mature enough to make such choices wisely; for this reason, guidance services can offer vital aid by helping pupils to choose those courses and activities that are most appropriate for them. (This is the *distributive* function of guidance.)

Secondary-school Organization for Guidance Services

Because guidance is an educative process, guidance services are integral parts of the educational program. The whole school team—administrators, teachers, guidance specialists, and pupils—is involved in this effort, each with his special area of responsibility.

The administrator is responsible for over-all leadership, for providing personnel and plant, for determining policy, for representing the school vis-à-vis the public, for assigning staff functions, and for coordinating all activities toward the achievement of established goals.[7]

Teachers are responsible for instruction. Since the secondary school is organized into departments, each teacher develops objectives within her own subject-matter area, organizes and operates a learning sequence, and evaluates progress. This is another way of saying that the teacher first determines what to teach, how to teach, and how to evaluate progress in learning and then executes this program. In personnel organization based on areas of subject matter, each teacher is concerned with increasing or developing pupils' knowledge and skill in the subject that she is teaching—in mathematics, in written and spoken language, in physical skills, and so on.

Contemporary fields of knowledge, even as they are studied in secondary schools, are so vast and so multitudinous that an effective high-school teacher must specialize in one or two subject-matter areas. In order to attain sufficient mastery of her subject to teach others well, the specialization of her teacher-training course must be reinforced by study continued throughout her teaching career. Such concentration upon subject matter sometimes causes impersonality and inability of the teacher to see the pupil as an individual; all too easily the teacher sees the student as a unit in mathematics, a unit in English, history, or chemistry. This impersonality is often accentuated by a necessity to plan the content, method, and pace of the learning experience in terms of the interests and capacities of the group as a whole rather than

[7] Clifford P. Froehlich, *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, Chapter 4.

in terms of the needs of individuals within the group. The reason for this type of planning is that the secondary-school teacher in many schools operates under an organizational plan which by its very nature imposes an overwhelmingly heavy subject-matter orientation upon her; moreover, she commonly meets a schedule of five daily classes—in English, for example—of 35 or more students in each group, and this total of 175 personalities is far too many for her to understand and work with as individuals without a great deal of help from other sources.

Herein lies a basic responsibility of the guidance worker: to provide the teacher with precisely the information about the home backgrounds, needs, interests, and abilities of pupils which will assist him to see each young person as a unique individual. With such information, the teacher can more effectively individualize learning experiences and more easily detect those students who require concentrated attention, encouragement, change of program, or other special treatment. What is more important, from the point of view of students who do not require unusual attention, is that the teacher who acquires a thorough knowledge and understanding of her young people as individuals is likely to accept each of them as a personality instead of seeing them as mere receptacles for knowledge, and consequently to teach from a student-oriented rather than a subject-oriented point of view.

Secondary-school organization can be summarized as follows: The success of the educational program is primarily dependent upon the teacher, who has the most frequent and continuing contact with the pupils. The services of administration and guidance are *facilitative*, designed to aid teacher and pupil in working effectively together. Both administrator and guidance worker are concerned with distribution of effort, with adjustment of method and material, with evaluative activities. The administrator works principally with teachers and other staff members, whereas the counselor is concerned primarily with students and their problems and relationships; it is therefore valid to designate him as the student-personnel representative.

Organizational Patterns

Among the various organizational plans for guidance services developed by secondary schools, three general approaches can be identified.[8] (1) In some schools guidance functions are carried on by teachers and administrators in the course of their other duties, with no time or personnel assigned

[8] Clifford E. Erickson and Glenn E. Smith, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947, Chapter 2.

specifically to guidance. (2) In other schools guidance functions are assigned to selected teachers, who are released from classroom duties for a part of each day. Generally known as the teacher-counselor plan, this is the most common form of organization. (3) The third pattern involves the use of full-time counselors who have no teaching assignments. Under this plan, the counselor is expected to be more thoroughly qualified as a specialist than are the teacher-counselors.

Research to date has provided little evidence on the relative merits of these three plans. Plans must be judged in terms of the needs of specific schools and specific communities. The criterion to be applied locally is this: Does the plan achieve the desired objectives? Does it meet the conditions demanded by the school situation—with consideration for such factors as size of school, amount of transiency, educational objectives of the community, qualifications and interests of the staff, funds available, general characteristics of the student body, and culture patterns in the community? Since communities and school personnel are capable of rapid change, an important criterion to be applied to any organizational plan is: Does it provide for continuing evaluation and adaptation?

A description of the guidance services provided by two schools of approximately the same size may help to clarify organizational differences. Both are senior high schools with enrollments of approximately one thousand pupils each. They are located in similar communities, and both have broad educational purposes. Both, moreover, have administrative staffs consisting of a principal, a full-time vice-principal, and a half-time dean of girls. School A is organized on the teacher-counselor plan. School B, however, has a full-time counselor.

In School A, six teachers are released daily from two consecutive periods of teaching to carry on guidance work. The plan for assignment of pupils may be schematized as follows:

Counselors	Assigned Pupils	Daily Periods
A		1, 2
B	10th grade (360 pupils)	5, 6
C		2, 3
D	11th grade (360 pupils)	4, 5
E		3, 4
F	12th grade (280 pupils)	5, 6

Counselors A and B will continue with the same groups throughout the three years, and Counselors E and F will pick up the new tenth grade next year, thus establishing continuity of relationship between counselor and pupil.

Many variations in this pattern will be found. In some schools only one

counselor is assigned to each grade, his counseling hours varying in accordance with the numbers in pupils in the grade. Although there is no fixed number known to constitute an optimal load for effective counseling, most schools try not to exceed 100 students per counseling hour per year.

Teachers for counseling services may be selected from any department, but surveys indicate that the tendency is to enlist social-studies teachers. The primary qualifications considered in selecting a counselor from the teaching staff are that she must have demonstrated in her classwork a good relationship with her pupils and that she must have had some training in guidance. (A more detailed statement of desired qualifications will be presented in Chapter 17.)

Some schools arrange to draw their teacher-counselors from among the teachers of required courses, such as English and social studies, thus ensuring that the counselor will also be a teacher of each pupil she counsels. This arrangement offers the advantages of helping counselor and student to become acquainted in the classroom situation, which facilitates group-guidance activities and the establishment of good teacher-pupil relationships and also helps to reduce the counselor's case load. The primary disadvantage of this plan is that it tends to establish between counselor and client the more authoritarian pattern of the teacher-pupil relationship, which may operate against the development of the permissive, confiding rapport that is the essence of effective counseling. The teacher's dual role may create problems in the counseling relationship: a pupil who has been a disruptive influence in his English class, for example, may find that his counselor—who is also his English instructor—is not completely objective and impersonal in her assessment of his problems.

School B employs two full-time consultants, a man and a woman. Although sex may only occasionally determine a student's choice of counselor, the possibility of selecting either a man or a woman as counselor may make the relationship more congenial for those students who confide more readily in adults of one sex than of the other.

In this school, the counselors do not teach any regular school subjects, but they do conduct an organized group of orientation programs for entering pupils, and they may plan other group activities. Although the case load may be distributed between the two counselors according to a number of criteria, in this school one counselor has primary responsibility for the tenth grade and one for the twelfth, with the eleventh-grade group distributed between them. This division of responsibilities makes it possible for one guidance worker to specialize on induction activities and articulation with the junior high school and the other counselor to give special attention to graduation activities, plans for college entrance, and job placement.

Since counseling in this school is not a part-time activity combined with

teaching, the counseling staff can be selected on the basis of counselor quali-
fications rather than teacher qualifications. The counselors, free from the
responsibility of daily preparation for teaching, can devote full attention to
guidance activities and are fully available for student interviews and teacher
or parent conferences.

As we have indicated, there are advantages and disadvantages in each of
these organizational plans. In the case of the full-time counselor, the major
problems appear to be in establishing effective relationships with teachers
and in so limiting the case load that adequate time may be devoted to
each case.

Variations of these plans are in practice, of course. One which appears
to have many advantages is in reality a combination of both the School A
plan and the School B plan. An example of this combination plan is in use
at School C: one fully qualified guidance worker is employed as a head
counselor and coordinator of guidance services; in addition, teacher-coun-
selors are used, as in the School A plan. The head counselor has also had
teaching experience which is valuable to him in his capacity as coordinator,
for it is his responsibility to develop a program that will involve all pupils
and all teachers and will help each student to appraise his own abilities, to
understand educational and vocational opportunities, to plan intelligently,
and to meet the normal problems of development.

The head counselor, in his role as chief or resource counselor, works with
students referred by other counselors. His actual counseling case load is
composed of those pupils whose problems are so difficult that they are
deemed beyond the limits of the time and skill which the teacher-counselors
can bring to them; in fact, he may see the more troubled young people as
often as once a week for a whole semester. The head counselor is also
responsible for psychological testing, case studies, case conferences, and com-
munity contacts. In addition, he arranges for staff training and stimulates
his colleagues toward continuous professional growth. His efforts in behalf
of counseling include the provision of adequate time, appropriate offices,
clerical help, and necessary materials for the guidance program. His pro-
fessional leadership is devoted to developing, evaluating, and adapting
guidance services and in furthering a student-personnel point of view in the
school and in the community at large.

The pattern of organization exemplified by School C is being developed
by an increasing number of secondary schools throughout the country.[9]
This pattern evolved out of the practical experience of many schools, and
it gives promise of becoming widely accepted. It is dependent, of course,
upon an adequate supply of trained guidance specialists. Although its

[9] Glenn E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program*, Macmillan Co.,
1951, Chapter 2.

obvious disadvantage is that it is more expensive than the other patterns, it would appear that its cost is more than offset by the reduction in wasted effort, discouragement, and failure, and by the increase in achievement and satisfaction.

Summary

There are important differences between guidance in the secondary school and guidance in the elementary school because the secondary-school student has become an adolescent and is no longer a member of a single class under a single teacher but must relate to a number of different teachers. This more complex learning situation makes new demands upon the student: he must make decisions. Guidance services can aid him by helping him to choose those courses and activities most appropriate to him. The whole school team —administrators, teachers, guidance specialists, students—are involved in this effort, each with his own special area of responsibility.

Because of the necessary specialization of subject matter required of the secondary school teacher, and because of the large number of students she must handle each day, it is difficult for her to know individuals. The guidance worker, by supplying the teacher with significant information about each pupil, helps the teacher to individualize her instruction and to give special help to those young people who require it.

Guidance services for secondary schools have typically developed along three general plans: (1) In some schools, guidance functions are carried on by teachers and administrators in the course of other duties; no time or resources are specifically assigned to guidance. (2) In other schools, guidance functions are assigned to selected teachers who are released from classroom duties part of each day. This teacher-counselor plan is the one most used. (3) Other school systems employ full-time counselors who have no teaching duties. It is not possible to say categorically that one of these plans is superior to the others; a plan that works best in one situation may be ineffectual in another.

Various combinations of these three plans are in use; for example, some schools employ a fully qualified guidance worker as a head counselor and coordinator of guidance services who directs the guidance efforts of a group of teacher-counselors. The latter refer to him those pupils whose problems are serious and difficult. He also does individual psychological testing, makes case studies, and is responsible for community contacts. This latter plan would appear to combine the strengths of the other two and is finding increased acceptance in schools throughout the country.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Visit a nearby secondary school and observe its guidance program. Prepare a chart which shows the general organization of the program. Interview one of the counselors and analyze his activities.

2. Plan an annual program of work for a high-school counselor. Designate major projects and emphases for each month of the school year.

3. The following report describes the guidance organization of a secondary school. Evaluate this organization. Prepare a similar report for a school which you either know well or have opportunity to observe.

Guidance Program for Union High School

Union High School has an enrollment of about 1300 students, who come from three city junior high schools and about a dozen smaller country schools.

The *head counselor* directs the entire program and counsels individual students for three hours daily. She sets up the master registration plan and is responsible for the interaction of the administration and the counseling program.

The *counseling staff* is chosen from the teachers. Each teacher-counselor has from one to three hours of counseling per day, is assigned about 90 students for each hour of counseling, and keeps the same group of students throughout their high-school life. The duties of the counselors include maintenance of permanent records for their students, registration, changes of program, and interviews in cases where the academic achievement of the student is unsatisfactory. During the last quarter of each school year, students are registered for the following year. This registration process includes

AND PROJECTS

a personal interview. Each student knows his counselor as a teacher also and is encouraged to consult her at any time. The counseling offices are crowded and inadequate.

Discipline problems are sent directly to the *dean of girls* or *dean of boys*. If the situation is serious enough, group conferences with other teachers, and sometimes with parents, may be called, but discipline problems are usually handled without the use of such techniques. The dean of boys, who is also vice-principal, does not have enough time to handle these cases as carefully and thoroughly as is desirable. In this respect the set-up is weak; there should be a closer relationship between the deans and the counseling department in these matters, with more emphasis placed on prevention.

A limited amount of home visiting is done by the *attendance officer* and the *school nurse*, who assume some of the responsibilities a visiting teacher would ordinarily handle and are often very helpful in discovering and investigating the home difficulties of students. The school nurse maintains the connection between the school and outside agencies.

Each student has a thirty-minute activity period each day. Since there are many bus students who cannot remain after school, this period gives all students the opportunity to attend club meetings and other extracurricular activities. The *class advisors* and *activity teachers* are useful agents for a limited amount of group guidance in cooperation with the counseling department. One teacher is given two periods a day to act as *activities coordinator*; she works with the student council and student-club advisors.

The school has a full-time *curriculum coordinator*. He and the head counselor work closely with the teachers of the group-guidance classes. The

county psychologist is available for occasional help or advice. His time is limited, however, and there is no other trained psychologist in the county.

The school has a fairly extensive *preregistration program*. The first contact with the prospective high-school students is made during their last semester in the junior high school. Under the direction of the head counselor, teachers in the various departments of the high school visit all the feeder schools and give specific information to the future students concerning the courses offered during the freshman year. The counseling staff also visits the schools and explains the various curriculums offered. The students are given an intelligence test and are registered for their freshman year by the high-school counseling staff, who are assisted in this registration by the eighth-grade teachers. Whenever possible, the parents are interviewed at this time. Near the end of the year the counseling staff holds an eighth-grade visiting day. On this occasion the eighth-graders spend the day at the high school, meet the teachers they will have the following year, and visit the freshman classrooms.

The school has two specific *group-guidance classes*. During their first year in the school all students take an orientation course which offers units in school orientation, health and safety, personality development, driver education, methods of study, and social relations. During their senior year all students except the liberal-arts students take a course in senior problems which includes a vocations unit and an extensive marriage-relations unit. I am not familiar with the program of testing for seniors or the program of counseling of liberal-arts students for college entrance.

The *testing program* is carried out in the classrooms. In their orientation class freshmen are given the Kuder Interest Inventory as a part of the vocational unit, and later the Bell Adjustment Test, which is followed up with an interview with their counselor. They are also given achievement tests in English and mathematics during their freshman and sophomore years.

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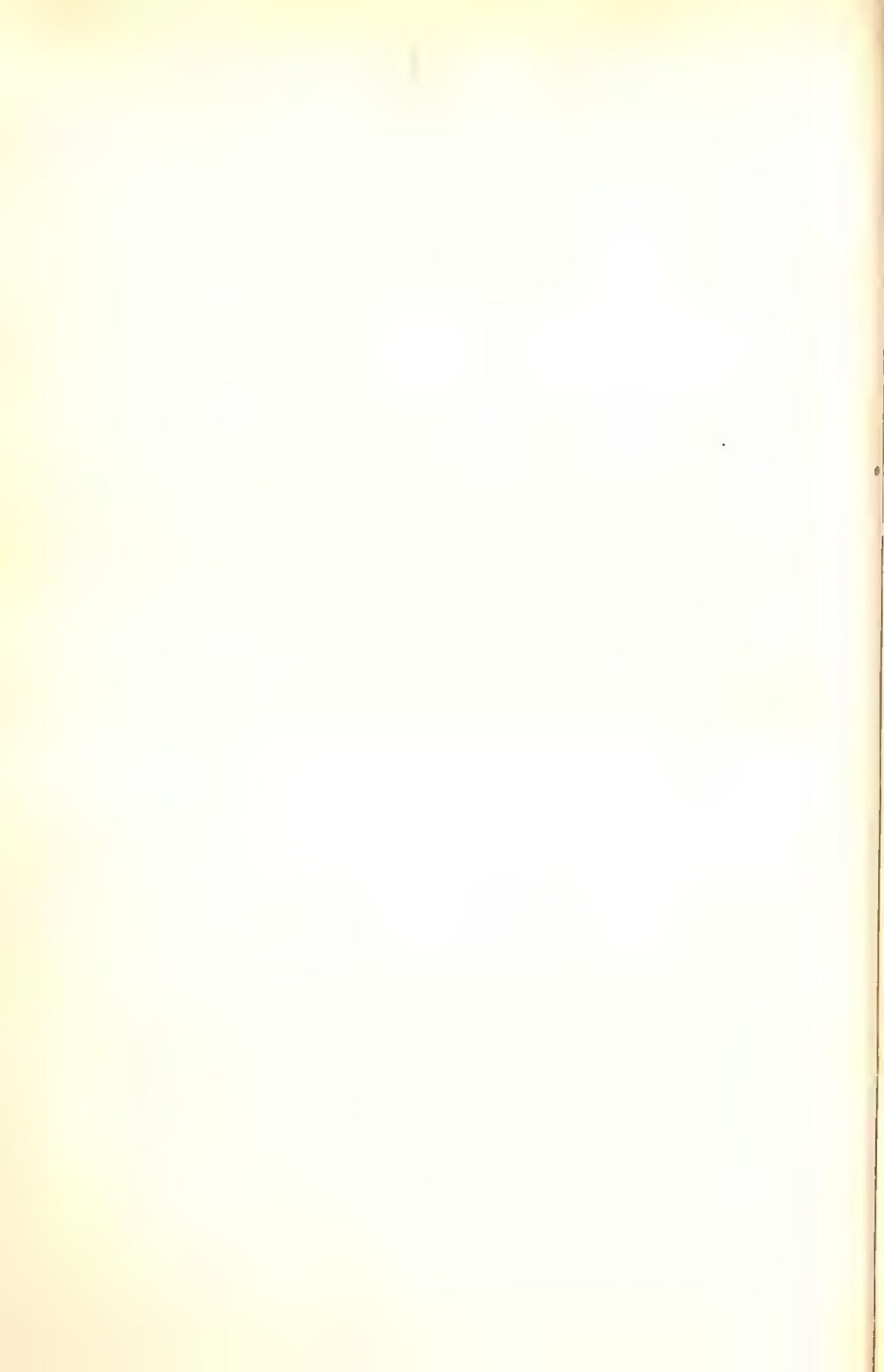Frank G. Davis and Pearle S. Norris, *Guidance Handbook for Teachers*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949.

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Part Two

THE ADJUSTIVE
FUNCTION OF GUIDANCE

· 5 ·

Guidance Needs of Young People

Now AND AGAIN a teacher has an experience which gives vivid emphasis to the oft-repeated saying that "behavior is caused" and demonstrates that this maxim is as true in the classroom as elsewhere.

Johnny, a fourth-grader, sat slumped in his seat, glowering at the world. Miss Duncan asked him if something was wrong. He snapped back at her so rudely that she ordered him to go to the principal's office. He went; and as he entered Mrs. Brophy's office, she looked up from her work and smiled at him. He didn't smile back.

"What is it, Johnny?" she asked.

"Miss Duncan sent me."

"Why?"

"Oh, that old hen, she's just got it in for me!"

"Johnny, don't talk that way about your teacher."

"I'll talk any way I want!"

Mrs. Brophy studied him a moment. She knew a little about his parents and their big family. She took Johnny's hand and asked gently, "Johnny, did you have any breakfast this morning?"

The defiance in Johnny's face crumpled.

"No," he said, "it wasn't my turn."[1]

Behavior in the classroom is often a reflection of strains and pressures originating outside the school. No child (or adult, either) can leave his feelings behind when he enters a schoolroom; and the extent to which he can control his feelings, the intensity of the emotions bottled up in him, and the sharpness of the aggravating circumstances that arise during the school day will determine the ways in which he performs. The teacher must not merely instruct; she must also, in varying degrees, cope with the emotional problems which her pupils bring into the classroom.

A typical elementary-school teacher may find herself devoting from one fifth to one third of her time to only two pupils, who are so disturbed that they require special attention. Obviously her efficiency is seriously reduced; she has less time to give to the majority of her group. A similar situation often exists in the secondary school. A high-school counselor may spend as much as two thirds of his time on the 7 to 10 percent of his case load who are failing in their academic work. If he concentrates two thirds of his time on 30 out of a possible 300 pupils, he can give only the most cursory attention to the remaining 270, who are average, bright, or talented.

Nonfailing pupils also need help from a counselor; and although sound-minded, able students call for help less frequently than do failing, troubled ones, the able need it just as urgently when they do request it. All of us have difficulties at times; not even the most stable person can entirely escape emotional crises. The complexity of human beings, young people as well as adults, and the intricacy of modern society create an interplay of personal and social factors in group life which results in an unrelenting succession of tensions. Each one of us is subject to an enormous variety of pressures. The effects of most of these pressures can be sloughed off casually in the daily routine of living, but the problems and dilemmas which others of them create seem so threatening, so potentially devastating, that the individual may be profoundly upset by them. He then needs help.

The problems of a child or a youth in school can often be solved or the resulting tensions eased if he has a chance for a thinking through of his difficulties with an experienced and discerning adult—a counselor. Young

[1] This story is true; the incident occurred during the 1930's in the years of the depression.

people go to school to learn; and learning can be seriously hampered by an emotional problem. A student who is worried and upset cannot keep his mind on his school tasks. To learn effectively, he must be interested and motivated—but interest and motivation wither in the heat of tempestuous feelings. Trouble, moreover, begets trouble; a student's worry increases with the realization that he is failing in his work. And emotional crises may frequently lead to emotional behavior and then to new complications.

In order to promote effective learning, therefore, schools must provide counselors who will help students free themselves of problems which hamper their learning efforts. Aside from its idealistic or philanthropic aspects, such aid prevents waste of educational effort and makes the schools more efficient. The more idealistic side of this educational problem should not, however, be minimized. Many people believe that enabling students to gain a mastery of subject matter is only one important function of the schools and that it is just as vital for the schools to help children and youth to grow up to be mature, self-reliant, resourceful, and happy individuals.

Counseling can increase educational efficiency in several ways. A great deal of time and effort is wasted by pupils and teachers in the secondary school as a result of faulty judgment in programing students in courses. If the abilities and needs of individual students were understood more thoroughly, there would be fewer false starts, fewer program changes, fewer temporary failures, and less maladjustment. Too many young people, for example, take college-preparatory work because of parental pressure or because it confers more prestige than courses in business, agriculture, or mechanical trades. Too often the girl who can make a competent typist flounders and fails in a course in music appreciation; and the boy who can develop a keen sensitivity for a short-circuit in a television set or a mismatched linkage in an automobile transmission delivers a performance in a course in English literature that is a fiasco. In some, though fewer, cases the young person who possesses ability in art or mathematics or creative writing elects to be "practical" by taking courses in business or mechanics in which he is bored, restless, and miserable.

Greater efficiency in education would result, too, if guidance counselors could give more attention to meeting the needs of the extremely able and the extremely unable among school children. Both the gifted and the retarded learners need special arrangements if their needs are to be met.

What are typical emotional problems of children and youth? They can be classified, roughly, as home-centered problems, school-centered problems, and community-centered problems. Actually, of course, these categories overlap. A problem may originate in one area but cause misbehavior in another. Some problems, moreover, are too serious and difficult for a school counselor

to handle; such cases should be referred to a psychiatrist. Many behavior disorders, indeed, are never completely cured. Usually, however, the school counselor is able to help in some degree most of the young people who come to him.

Home-centered Problems

The first five years of life are crucial in the development of personality. During this period an individual's character is conditioned according to a general pattern that persists through life. As an infant and as a small child, the individual is especially susceptible to influences around him. His early years are usually spent in the family circle, chiefly with the mother. If family life at this time is troubled and unharmonious, the likelihood is strong that the effects of this stress upon the child will be felt long afterward.[2] (It is worth pointing out that studies of orphans reveal that, as a group, they are usually less secure and less successful individuals than the unorphaned. Lack of the affection and support of parents in early childhood seems definitely to handicap them.)

PARENTAL PRESSURE FOR ACHIEVEMENT. Especially in what sociologists call "upward-mobile" middle-class families—that is, families who strive continuously and strenuously to improve their social and economic status—parental pressure creates a situation that is damaging to the confidence and self-esteem of children of average or less-than-average ability. Even when the pressure is indirect and unspoken—even when it is only implied in the expression of ideals or in praise for the success of others—it is a heavy burden on the child.

Sometimes parents have unrealistic aspirations for their children, such as wanting them to enter professions although they lack the academic ability for advanced study or wanting them to become concert musicians or portrait painters although their talent is limited. Such children suffer frustration and its train of consequences—guilt, self-blame, and feelings of inferiority and acute anxiety.

PREMATURE DEMANDS. Demanding a level of behavior that is too mature for a growing child is a common error of parents. Children lack patience, self-control, perseverance, foresight, understanding of other people's feelings, polished manners, proper reverence, and wisdom—precisely because they are children. To expect them to behave as though they were mature is to forget

[2] Charlotte Buhler, Faith Smitter, and Sybil Richardson, *Childhood Problems and the Teacher*, Henry Holt and Co., 1952, Part II.

that children can acquire these desirable characteristics only with years of training and experience. Parents who try to force their children into maturity by becoming anxious and punishing succeed only in developing in them insecurity and rebelliousness.

SIBLING RIVALRY. The young child who is displaced by a new baby usually develops feelings of jealousy, hostility, and resentment which may live within him for a long time. Particularly susceptible to such feelings are the less-favored of twins, the stepchild, the child of average ability who has a much brighter sibling, the plain girl who has a pretty sister, and the awkward boy who has a brother skilled in athletics.

PARENTAL REJECTION. Rejection of a child by its parents may occur for any of a variety of reasons, and there are many, often subtle, ways in which the parents show their feelings in such cases. Many rejecting parents are very conscientious and do their best to be good parents, often, indeed, repressing their feelings of rejection toward the child so well that they are themselves unaware of them. The child, however, senses the rejection in the general feeling tone of his family. Many rejecting parents are overprotective and lavish material gifts on their children; such behavior may represent the parents' unconscious atonement for repressed guilt feelings.

Parental rejection of a child may occur if the parents did not want to have a child at all; if they have a daughter when they wanted a son; if an athletic man who loves the outdoors has a bookish son; if a lovely woman has a plain daughter; if gifted parents have a child of average ability; if the arrival of offspring means a setback to a career or to professional advancement.

The results of rejection are often serious. Many rejected children become anxious, timid, introverted adults who may always have difficulty in relating to other people.

THE EMOTIONAL CLIMATE OF THE HOME. The emotional tone of the parents is a potent influence upon the personality of the child. Because anxiety and tension are contagious, the children of excessively insecure or emotionally unstable parents are themselves likely to become tense, timid individuals who suppress normal impulses, who lack warmth and openness and the hopeful venturesomeness basic to creative achievement.

The practical causes of parental failure to establish a calm, secure home atmosphere in which children feel safe are many. Working parents who feel guilty about neglecting their children, even though their absence is unavoidable, are likely to cause their children to feel worried and upset. Divorce presents children with many practical problems, among them adjustment to step-parents and moving from one home to another—problems that are seriously aggravated if, in addition, the parents have such guilt feelings, anxiety, and tenseness as to create a home atmosphere that is emotionally unsettling.

Although broken homes are often blamed for juvenile delinquency, the mere separation or divorce of the parents is not in itself the all-important source of serious misbehavior among juveniles; delinquency is more likely to occur among children who live in a home atmosphere that is full of stress, of gloom and dislike, of malice or boredom, of desperate unhappiness. A child growing up in such an atmosphere lacks the sustaining sense of being loved—of being able to count on having help and understanding—which is the necessary foundation of self-esteem and courage and of ultimate accomplishment.

OVERDEPENDENCE. Just as neglect or rejection may make a child aggressive and antisocial in much of his behavior, overconcern for a child, or pampering, may cause him to become highly dependent on his parents. The pampered child's growth is stunted because he is prevented from becoming a self-reliant and independent person.

OVERWORK AND EXPLOITATION. The young person who has too heavy a routine of chores on the farm or who has too much work to do in the family store each day may have little zest and energy left for study or may be so burdened with the tasks in addition to his schoolwork that he loses hope and becomes impatient to reach the age at which he can leave school. Some children who have special ability—in music, for example—or who have talent that enables them to perform professionally may be kept busy for so many of their out-of-school hours that they are deprived of normal childhood experiences. Many such children are unhappy and resentful, and in consequence they are likely to be behavior problems at school, to be unable to cooperate well with adults, and to develop into hostile adults who are the difficult members of any group they enter.

ECCENTRICITIES. Family or family-member eccentricities or disabilities sometimes cause a growing child to suffer extreme embarrassment. A member of the family who is feeble-minded, for example, or harelipped, club-footed, spastic, or deaf-mute; or parents who are alcoholic, eccentric in dress, or faddists in regard to food or exercise may become a subject of painful sensitivity to a child. At certain stages of their development, most young people conform slavishly to what is considered proper by their friends, and family deviation from the norm causes them embarrassment far out of proportion to the cause.

ATYPICAL PARENTAL STANDARDS. Parent-child conflict may arise when parents set standards of conduct contrary to those of the child's friends. Some religious groups frown on dancing, Sunday tennis, Saturday baseball, or Sunday movies. Groups differ in their attitudes toward reading comic books, owning firearms or "hot rods," playing Little League baseball, eating

meat, smoking, drinking, manners toward elders, the status granted to children, discipline, television, water sports, hunting—almost any area of social activity. Conflict between parental restrictions and peer-group activity can be severely disturbing to normally obedient young people.

ABSENCE OF PARENTAL WARMTH. A child who grows up without affection, warmth and close family relationships may lack the ability to experience empathy—that is, a sense of identification with others. He is likely to be deficient in sympathy and human understanding, and this deficiency is a personality defect which may deprive him of many rich experiences.

The home-centered problems that we have noted here constitute only a sampling of the countless tension-producing situations which may arise within the family group. A disturbed parent-child relationship is considered the most common basic cause of children's problems. Young people can withstand much stress arising outside the home, but when they feel that the love of their parents is denied them and when their parents are troubled and unstable, they are seriously and permanently affected.

With regard to guidance, the important point is that *disturbance in the home is reflected in the learning and social activities of the school child.* Young people whose home life is upset go to school burdened with distracting emotions which seriously limit not only their energy but their motivation for learning; such an emotional condition is detrimental to learning readiness, and such children and youth need counseling to ease and perhaps heal their emotional illness.

Case Studies: Two Home-centered Problems

In the following case a young child's fears and withdrawal completely blocked his learning and social adjustment in school.

The first teacher report on Billy (who is 7 years, 4 months old and in the low first grade) says: "Billy is very nervous, does not work at all but daydreams and seems to want to escape from reality; he constantly plays for attention and bothers other children at work in the classroom. This behavior has been consistent in the four months he has been in the group. His work is below average, and he has repeated this first grade. His I.Q. is 98, yet he has difficulty in all subjects.

Some effort was made to gather data on Billy. Neighbors of his family were questioned and gave the following information:

"Parents give the child material things but no individual attention—no

loving, no cuddling. When I [the neighbor] play records for him, his eyes just light up. His father had St. Vitus's Dance when young, and is the center of attention at home. The mother is rather domineering in a mild-appearing way. The father takes Billy fishing but only when he, the father, says so; everything defers to the father. The boy is well-kept materially, not emotionally or spiritually.

"Billy can't get into a play situation at home. Watches others at play but won't join in himself. When boys bat the ball out of the lot, Billy will run great distances to retrieve it.

"The mother appears to be wrapped up in girls' affairs: Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, etc. The parents mean well, but they just aren't realizing Billy's troubles."

Billy's teacher commented: "Billy comes to school repeatedly with one peanut-butter sandwich—no fruit, cookies, or other variant."

All during the year Billy's work and attitude at school failed to improve, so the teacher asked that the county social worker look into the matter after the principal had requested such action. The social worker made the following report:

"Billy has been known to us since April 4 because of school adjustment problems. He has a hearing loss and complains of 'noise in his ears.' *It was felt that possible existing home problems contributed to his lackadaisical application to schoolwork, his fear of aggression, and fear of the dark.*

"The family consists of the parents, Billy, and two older sisters, one in the fourth grade, the other in the eighth. They live in a small two-bedroom house. Billy, who formerly slept in a roll-away bed in the living room, now sleeps in the same room with his sisters. He is afraid of the dark. His mother stated that about two years ago, while Billy was on his way home from school, a big boy jumped him. It frightened him so much that he would walk looking behind him. He complains that loud noises hurt him, and so he did not play with guns or noise-makers until recently. He also disliked to play with children who are aggressive or mean."

On January 5, Billy's case was referred to the county director of child guidance. After interviews, the psychologists' report stated:

"Billy is a smiling boy who appears dull in his conversation. His speech is mumbling, and one wonders if there is a hearing loss.

"The Binet indicates average intelligence, but there is a concentration disturbance and a short attention span. Poorest work is with those test items measuring social comprehension. Best work is done with those items which are more abstract and have less to do with interpersonal relations. The overall picture suggests good average intelligence. But in a reading test—a test of oral reading—he shows a complete inability to read. He also is immature socially. On the projective test, Billy shows a real fear of aggression in himself and others. He broods considerably about people being hurt or someone

hurting him. It may be postulated that he equates aggression with learning and, in denying aggression in himself, denies the learning process in school.

"On the surface he is happy, but he is happy only as long as he remains passive and thus avoids aggression. For example, some of his sentence completions read as follows: 'I feel very sorry when—someone gets hurt.' 'Jack really became angry when—someone hurt him.' 'The main thing in my life is—love.' 'The worst thing that ever happened to me was—when people throw rocks.' There are many more sentences completed this way. On the whole, there seems to be energy in the boy, but it is directed toward avoidance—avoiding situations rather than coping with them. Because of such complete school failure and complete passivity, it seems wiser to refer this boy to a child-guidance clinic, if the family sees the problem as we do. The interview with the family will be reported also."

In the following case the problem arises out of unreal aspirations on the part of a student's family.

Jim is a freshman in high school. He is a handsome boy who dresses well but not in the blue jeans which are conventional in the town. He generally wears slacks, a white shirt, and an Air Corps jacket.

He has had a very cocky attitude and was loud in class and prone to talk back until the teacher gave him to understand that it would not be tolerated. Since that time Jim has been a "lamb" in class and has tried diligently to do his work, but to no avail.

On an individual intelligence test his I.Q. was scored at 58. His penmanship is unbelievably bad. He inverts the order of letters, even in simple words. For example, about half the time he writes "fo" for "of." It is almost impossible to read his writing, both because of the terrible spelling and because of the hundreds of swirls and flourishes he employs to beautify his writing.

He is allowed to have the family car on afternoons and evenings to drive around town and, as a result, is quite popular with young people of both sexes.

He maintains that he is studying to be a doctor. This is not a whim. His parents both stoutly insist that Jim is to study medicine. Jim received five F's and one D-minus at the end of the first marking period. In addition to his other subjects this year, Jim has been allowed to enroll in Spanish I, the fundamentals of which he cannot possibly grasp because of his lack of understanding of the English language. In spite of his poor grades, Jim's parents still stoutly maintain that he is to study medicine.

If Jim's I.Q. actually is as low as his test results indicate, he will meet only frustration and failure in high school, unless the school makes some attempt

to meet his special problems. He will never, of course, study medicine or get to college. He is mentally retarded; although that is not the fault of the school, it should make some effort to help him and his parents to understand and to accept his limitations.

School-centered Problems

A public school in a suburb of a big city developed a student court which met weekly to try pupils charged with offenses against school regulations. The court had a panel of judges and a recorder who kept books and summoned witnesses, and it convened on the auditorium stage to hold proceedings while the whole school looked on. It was entirely a pupil-run affair.

On one occasion, a fifth-grade boy was brought to trial on a charge of leaving the play area assigned to upper-grade children and going to play with second-graders. Before all the assembled pupils and teachers, the recorder announced that, according to the books, this was the third time that the boy had committed this infraction of rules.

Standing there on the stage, the accused fifth-grader awaited the verdict, which was rendered before all the attentive school: Guilty. Red-faced, he had to continue to stand there as sentence was passed: that he be spanked by the principal.

The principal intervened. Perhaps the sentence was too harsh? The pupil-judges reconsidered and handed down another sentence: the fifth-grader was ordered to move down to the second grade and spend three full days with the second-grade group.[3]

This fifth-grade boy obviously had emotional problems; and although the trial probably put a stop to his mild, overt misbehavior, it did not satisfy his inner needs and did not take the place of the expert counseling which he really required.

On entering school, children may develop problems they had not experienced before, owing to the demands made upon them to perform academically up to school standards and to behave in accordance with school requirements.[4] To be successful in school, an individual must, of course, have the mental ability to do his classwork; to be able to attend regularly and work consistently, he must, moreover, maintain a fairly uniform level of good health. Beyond these requirements, he must be adjustable enough in temperament to fit smoothly into school routines and to find satisfaction in

[3] From an account by Dr. Faith Smitter.
[4] Buhler, Smitter, and Richardson, op. cit., Chapter 6.

associating with his age-mates. The individual who fails to meet these requirements is apt to find it difficult to make a happy adjustment to school life. The fifth-grader in the preceding account, who was put on trial for leaving his age-mates to associate with younger children, was probably so lacking in maturity and self-confidence that he was insecure with other fifth-graders but at ease and happy with the second-graders. His failure to behave according to school standards, in this case, resulted in new problems to complicate old ones.

Initial Adjustment to School

Even the child who has a happy home and comes to school without an emotional handicap to learning may face a period of difficult adjustment; for, as he enters kindergarten, he moves into an entirely new world. In a very real sense, he has left home to go off to work.[5] Until now, he has lived almost entirely in the safe, comfortable, closely knit unit of his family; he has had the affectionate care of parents and siblings, of grandparents, uncles, and aunts. In this secure little universe he has been rich in privilege; he has been the pride and delight of solicitous adults; he has fully expressed his feelings and has been indulged in his moods and whims.

School is different. When he goes to school, he finds himself in a strange world in which he must, often literally, fight his own battles. In school he becomes one of many children in an unfamiliar environment. Alone and unaided, he must make his own way as a stranger in a community of children who look at him impersonally and appraisingly. It is up to him to win acceptance among them, to establish a role, to gain recognition and prestige, all strictly on his own merits. For his peers do not have to accept him; they have no family obligation to be kind to him; they can ignore him—or make him a butt of brutal horseplay and derision. He has to achieve belongingness in their group, and just how popular and respected among them he will become depends entirely upon his own efforts.

If this task overwhelms him, he will have little drive and energy left for learning. Even the academically able child will do less than his best during this period of adjustment. For the confident few, entering a new group and becoming a key figure in it is easy. They find the new world of school so full of adventure and satisfaction that they seem to disclaim home and mother and to identify exclusively with the newly found playmates. Such youngsters are the fortunate but rare ones, for winning acceptance in the peer group is difficult for most children and impossible for some.

[5] James H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Child Development*, Harper and Brothers, 1948, Chapter 20.

This period of adjustment is one of stress and emotion. Failure to win a place in the group brings a shattering of confidence and self-esteem, unhappiness, and a possible variety of behavior problems. Some children will withdraw into loneliness and, if capable, take solace in pleasing the teacher and in making good grades. Other children will lash out, aggressively venting their disappointment and resentment by hurting others and making trouble in various ways. Some will try to buy friendship with gifts and money, which they may obtain by petty thievery at home.

The child entering school has to adjust not only to the community of children but to his teacher and to school routines. After having been the center of his small home world, he must now share attention, equipment, activities, and play; he must stay indoors when he may prefer to be outdoors; he must learn and observe a whole new set of regulations imposed by a new set of authorities: Do not run in the halls. Do not whisper during recitations. Do not chew gum. Do not write in books. Do not push in line. Do not leave the room without permission. Do not whistle or hum. And so on. Although the new world of school may be fresh and exciting at first, as the novelty wears off, the young pupil may have strong feelings of neglect, fatigue, boredom, and rejection. He is fortunate if he relates easily to his teacher and if she seems to him to resemble his mother; otherwise his adjustment may well take longer and be more difficult.

Individual and Group Difficulties

In addition to the matter of initial adjustment to school, pupils may encounter a variety of other problems. Young people who suffer from physical or mental deficiencies will have to adjust to their limitations and may be either helped or hindered in this effort by their peers and the school staff. Children who have neither health problems nor intellectual handicaps may suffer from cultural deprivations arising from poverty or from the fact that their family background is alien. For such pupils, teacher bias is in some cases a problem. Teacher deficiencies, too, may cause difficulties for young people; inept teaching methods, a classroom atmosphere of competitive strain and pressure, or teacher inability to help the isolated and rejected among her pupils can make school life a dreaded routine.

Some young people are socially successful in one kind of group but failures in another. The well-mannered child who has been taught to be considerate of others may be mocked unmercifully by rougher children. The tomboyish girl may be isolated in a school that stresses gentility, and the intellectual boy may find himself sadly alone among youths who worship

athletics. Influential cliques in group life may serve to exclude from status activities pupils who for one reason or another do not "fit." Pupils excluded from status groups become apathetic and hopeless about participation in the elections, team games, managerial staffs, and dance committees that give to school life much of its zest. The pupil who plays no satisfying role in such activities feels by-passed and unworthy.

An occasional child, of course, is a serious behavior problem and needs therapy. The sadistic child who mistreats younger children, the unhappy child who spreads a contagion of hostility toward adults, the child who has retreated from reality into a fantasy world of daydreaming, the child who has a block against reading or writing or even speaking—each one needs help in overcoming problems of school adjustment and potentially serious emotional difficulties. Although such problems often have their beginnings in the home, their effects may be seriously disturbing in school.

The mentally retarded child, although his problems differ from those of the hostile or withdrawn child of normal intelligence, requires special help if he is to adjust to school life in some degree. Unless the school makes special provision for him, he fails humiliatingly in his academic work. Too often he is aware that he is resented by teachers to whom he is a burden and a reproach; too often he is teased by his peers, his difference from them made agonizingly painful by their mocking horseplay. To the school staff he presents a dilemma: if the mentally retarded student attends regular classes, his achievement is extremely poor; if he is placed in special groups, he learns more, but he feels keenly the stigma of being segregated in classes which receive unflattering labels from the other pupils. In most cases the community is unaware of this aspect of the school life of the mentally retarded. These young people want desperately to be like other pupils; youngsters who cannot read will actually carry textbooks home so that it looks as though they have homework assignments like everyone else. This is a very human trait, of course, and it is only natural for such pupils to resist attending school when their experience is consistently one of frustration and humiliation.

Other types of special handicap make communication between teacher and pupil difficult. Some kinds of eye deficiency, such as concentration of visual effort in one eye for so long a time that the other eye loses almost all visual ability, block a pupil's efforts to learn. And it may be discovered only after months or years of apparent laziness that the child who seems never to pay attention has been unable to follow an explanation because he sees the blackboard only fuzzily. A hearing deficiency, similarly, may make learning prohibitively difficult for a youngster. Such problems are usually

discovered early in schools in which a nurse is on duty and physical examinations are routine.

The adjustment of some children to school is impaired not by their own difficulties but by the personal prejudices of teachers or by general social prejudices. A teacher who cannot hide her dislike of garlicky breath, crooked teeth, flaring nostrils, zoot suits, muddy loafers, snug sweaters, foreign accents or regional idioms, radical opinions or certain religious affiliations, atrocious puns, dreamy abstractedness, stuttering shyness, or compulsive verbosity may cause pupils to put up defenses which obstruct receptivity to learning.

Many young people from minority groups have unhappy school experiences because not only the other children, who express the social prejudices of their parents, but sometimes even the teachers treat them in prejudicial ways established in the community. Prejudice and intolerance usually are less evident among elementary-school children than among adolescents. Indeed, one of the most devastating experiences of minority-group children is to find that, when they enter high school, some of their formerly close school friends begin to avoid them.

Other kinds of cultural deprivation or deviation may seriously impair adjustment to school. Poverty may deprive children and youth of a full share of that vast body of experience which should be common to all—sports, books, plays, radio, music, television, art, travel, and so on. Children who are unfamiliar with such experiences may fail to understand reading material involving piano lessons or flying in a commercial airplane or skiing or seeing *Peter Pan* at the theater or surfboarding or having teeth straightened or going to summer camp. They may perform poorly in reading for want of background in the subject matter.

The children of farm workers who follow the harvests have especially difficult educational careers, because they frequently change from one school to another and for long periods may not attend school at all. Inevitably they are retarded in their academic work by comparison with pupils who attend school regularly and who do not suffer the emotional pangs of repeatedly adjusting to new schools.

Because of irregular attendance and lack of any special provision for their needs, migrant children often are not promoted. As oversized, overaged pupils among younger children, they look sullen and awkward because they feel very keenly that they are incompetent. The result is that, as soon as possible, they drop out of school. If such culturally deprived youngsters are of Spanish-speaking origin, they may have a language handicap in addition.

Changing schools, like entering school for the first time, always involves a period of possibly difficult adjustment. Each time a young person moves from one school to another, he must again go through the ordeal of winning acceptance among his peers and of relating to the adults in charge. Pupils who come from private schools with small classes and an informal program have a difficult adjustment to make when transferred to crowded, formal public schools; and pupils who move from a segregated to a nonsegregated school may experience some problems in social adjustment.

Certain types of frustration may seriously hamper learning. A pupil of average ability may suffer acutely from a sense of defeat and incompetence if he is placed in a group in which he must compete with older, more mature children. And even a gifted pupil, although he may be able to meet the academic standards of a more advanced class, may be so much less mature socially than his classmates that he feels like a misfit and suffers anxiety. Sometimes parents request that twins, or even siblings of different ages, be placed in the same classroom. The result may be unfortunate, for if the younger or less able finds the task of matching the achievements of his sibling far too taxing, he may feel humiliatingly inferior; and if the older or more able resents being in a class below that of his own age group, he may take out his feelings upon his brother.

Frustration may also ensue if an individual is forced to work at a pace which is not in accordance with his individual needs. Individuals vary in work tempo and attention span. The pupil who is a slow but thorough worker and a perfectionist may become unbearably frustrated if pressed to work at a pace that is unnatural for him. The fast, capable student, on the other hand, may outstrip the class in finishing assignments and then have time and idle hands ready for mischief to relieve his boredom.

The Teacher's Attitude Toward Discipline

The teacher's basic attitude toward her class—whether dominating or permissive—conditions not only the emotional climate for learning but group relationships and personality development. In a class which is conducted according to democratic principles, pupils learn—by their experience in committees, in group planning sessions, and in working as teams on common projects—to take turns and to respect the rights of others. In such a class, each individual is given consideration and support. By contributing in a vital way to the work of the group, each has a chance to earn belongingness and to win the contentment and security achieved by playing an effective role on a team of his respectful peers. The result is that every

child is enabled to develop a wholesome self-concept and to gain confidence and self-esteem. This kind of individual development through the group cannot be achieved in the classroom in which the atmosphere is authoritarian or laissez-faire. When children work solely as individuals, responsible only to the instructor, teamwork does not exist and the fine results of good group work are not achieved.

A competitive academic program presents many hazards to the less able and less aggressive students. Although the children who can compete successfully may gain satisfaction from the competitive situation, the less able or less aggressive are made to feel inadequate by comparison. Their self-respect damaged, they naturally react by seeking to escape from a situation in which they are made to seem incompetent. The teacher who is sensitive to this problem avoids competitive situations. She carefully observes each child's special abilities and aptitudes and gives each a chance to demonstrate his unique strengths in a manner that will win the respect of the group and enhance his confidence. Although this is not an easy task for the teacher, especially in a system that stresses formal learning, increasing numbers of teachers are coming to accept this responsibility as they recognize the need for safeguarding personality in the classroom.

The competitive learning situation is illustrated by some types of comparative report cards, by the practice of not promoting children who fail, and by the organization of classes entirely according to the children's academic abilities. In many cases, failure by these standards is experienced by children and parents as a stigma, and its result is often an emotional crisis in the family in which hurt pride and loss of confidence damage the child's concept of himself. The young person may, in consequence, tend to become rigid and cautious.

Although competitive school practices should, obviously, be used with extreme caution, it is neither wise nor practicable to say that they should never be used at all. Some pupils may profit from the stimulus of a comparative report card; some may benefit greatly from repeating a grade; others may be better placed in a special remedial situation. For optimum individual development, pupil placement should be flexible enough to meet the observed needs of individuals with a minimum of trauma; inflexible practices of any kind fail to meet this need. Perhaps the best general rule is expressed as follows: the composition of classes should result in placing each individual in that situation which provides for him the best and most challenging opportunity for learning.

Classroom discipline, unwisely enforced, can be a source of trauma and suffering. To avoid a harmful effect on the individual personality, disci-

pline must be appropriate to the insight and maturity of the child. When a youngster is punished for violating a rule he does not understand, his misbehavior may be henceforth inhibited, but undesirable consequences, such as resentment against the teacher and worry and doubt about himself, may result. If, however, discipline involves learning—if the pupil comes to understand *why* the rule is necessary—he will be able to accept the need for modifying his behavior along more considerate and constructive lines, and the experience will promote rather than hinder his development.

Standards of behavior valued by a teacher may be quite different from those pupils have been taught to respect in their homes or neighborhood groups. The child of permissive parents may rebel against the teacher who is strict; and, conversely, the child who is used to authoritarian adults may be a wild, disruptive influence in the group under a teacher who is permissive and informal. A pupil may lack refined manners or high standards of behavior simply because he has never been taught them: to punish him for not saying thank you, for a lapse of language, or for wiping his nose on his sleeve may inflict an injustice that will rankle; to penalize him for swearing and fighting may be to fail to recognize that in his neighborhood *not* to return insult with hotter insult, *not* to lash back when cuffed, is to mark oneself as childish, cowardly, and unworthy of respect. To make a major behavior issue of chewing tobacco, tossing pennies, looting melon patches, or upsetting privies is not to recognize that these adolescent pranks may be as admired in some social groups as swallowing live goldfish or going on "panty raids" are in others. Understanding the causes of immature behavior need not, of course, prevent the adult from pointing out to young people that such behavior is immature.

To inculcate desirable behavior standards, the teacher must start by recognizing and accepting the children as they have been formed by their home backgrounds and other past experiences. The teacher who fails to understand the value standards of her group may come into conflict with the entire class by reprimanding individuals for behavior which the class admires. Only by understanding and accepting them as they are can a teacher help her pupils to grow in insight and understanding. The teacher who has had a middle-class upbringing or has acquired middle-class standards may have difficulty understanding the behavior of children of either lower- or upper-class origin and should make especial efforts to become acquainted with the home and neighborhood backgrounds of her pupils so as to gain surer insight into their manners and motivations.[6]

[6] W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, and Kenneth Eells, *Social Class in America,* Science Research Associates, 1949, Chapter 1.

Adjustment to High School

The moves from elementary school to junior high school and then to senior high school repeat to some extent the "new student" period of adjustment for young people. Each move may produce an intense emotional impact, for during these years, young people are entering into adolescence with its accompanying physical and psychological growth and its new and complex social demands. Secondary school requires greater maturity, self-reliance, and ability to make choices than does elementary school. As we have seen, no longer does a whole class have a common program with one teacher, but each individual must make choices and plans and adjust to working with several teachers, each of whom is a different personality and no one of whom sees and guides the student's whole school experience. Studies to determine what problems are common to secondary-school students indicate that among the questions they frequently raise are the following:

Educational

Which major shall I take?
What courses shall I take?
Should I go to college?
Why is geometry so hard for me?

How can I speed up my reading?
Will chemistry be interesting?
How can I make better grades?

Vocational and Economic

What career shall I choose?
Should I be able to decide now?
What are the requirements?
How will I like ——?
How much education will I need?

What will it cost?
How can I get a job?
Should I work part time?
How can I earn some money?
How can I get a car?

Personal and Social

How can I make friends?
How can I get a date?
Where can I get sex information?
Am I too fat?
How should I dress?
How can I get along with my father?

Why don't I get elected?
How can I learn to like people?
How can I get into a club?
Which activity shall I choose?
Where can I learn to dance?

To these highly personal questions, standard answers which will apply to everyone are not to be found in any single book or course. The counselor cannot give the student a ready-made answer, but the troubled student may, if he has a chance to think through his problem with the sympathetic attention and encouragement of a counselor, work out satisfactory solu-

tions for many of these questions himself. If he has no such chance, his unsolved problems may deprive him of many of the potential benefits of his schooling. Lack of an adequate guidance program in a high school may result in the failure of the school to meet student needs, a failure that may aggravate the present and the future emotional and behavioral problems of its students.

Case Studies: Five School-centered Problems

The first study concerns a high school with an inadequate guidance program and points out several of the resulting problems.

A school located in a small town of approximately 2000 people has a student body of 600 students, who come both from the town and from the farming area surrounding it. The principal industries of the community are dairy farming and lumbering. The high school at present offers students four fields of study: *vocational* (wood shop and auto shop), *agricultural*, *business*, and *college preparatory*. The school has 45-minute periods and an 8-period day.

The only formal guidance provided by the school is a 15-minute "advisory period" immediately following the opening of school in the morning. It is used primarily for making an accurate roll call. Other uses of the period are to make routine announcements, distribute the school paper, levy fines, sell student-organization cards, and deal with the other money matters that usually plague the home-room teacher.

The principal admits that this "advisory period" is purely an administrative device. It has an important function at the beginning and the end of the year, when pre-enrollment and programing are necessary. The students are assigned to their advisories alphabetically by their year in school. The term "advisory" is a poor choice, because little or no advice is given in these classes. As a result, incoming students receive little orientation to aid them in problems of personal choice.

To help the graduating elementary groups to choose a course of study when they enter high school, a vice-principal of the high school and one of the teachers who has been in the grammar school for many years talk to them late in the spring. It is a brief, hurried "talking to." The vice-principal and the teacher usually take three or four days to cover a large geographical area and to speak to some 200 pupils. The pre-enrollment is completed and the student has his first-year program as well as the first step toward his lifework arranged for him within about two or three minutes. Needless to say, there is a vast amount of changing of programs in the first

few weeks of school the following year. What is worse, in a number of cases, students reach their senior year before they and the staff realize that they have been selecting courses haphazardly and have not experiencd a purposeful, coherent program of studies. And many students who, for various individual reasons, need help with special programs complete their high-school education without guidance, to the detriment of their entire educational careers.

The following brief review of the case of Wayne illustrates a situation in which a school (which might be the one just described) fails to meet a student's needs.

Wayne is a freshman in high school this year. He is taking a straight agricultural course but is required to enroll in English I, as are all freshmen.

Wayne is not a troublemaker. He simply sits in class and never has his books or papers. He seems to have great difficulty in keeping awake. Eighteen years of age, he is a big boy, weighing 170 pounds and standing 5′ 11″. His dress is neat and clean. He wears the same apparel as most of the boys in school—blue jeans and jacket.

Wayne lives on a dairy farm with his grandparents, west of town on the river bottom. Of necessity, Wayne works late into the evening on the farm; and then, as he says, he usually reads a comic before he goes to sleep. He gets up before the sun in order to get the milking and the chores done before coming to school. His test record indicates that he is right at the border line between normal intelligence and mental deficiency. In school, he always turns in a paper with the rest of the class, but his is unique in that it contains only his name in huge letters sprawled across the entire paper—with nothing else.

The following is the case of a boy whose academic potentialities were not realized because of language difficulties.

At least one fourth of the children in the school speak Spanish exclusively in their homes. As a result, many have to stay in the first grade for two years in order to learn to speak and understand English. They do not always learn enough English. Many of them have later difficulties in learning which seem to stem from a lack of sufficient knowledge of the language.

Ramon, a seventh-grader, made a score of 8 percent on a science examination. The teacher did not believe this truly represented his ability: to check, she read each question to him and let him write his responses. This time he made a score of 96 percent. He possessed good scientific aptitude, but he was inhibited in performance by inability to read and understand English adequately. Obviously, he needed special help.

Many pupils are handicapped by language difficulties; a good proportion of them have good aptitudes which are never recognized and never devel-

oped because such youngsters frequently lose hope and quit school as soon as they reach the minimum age. Given help, many of them would continue their schooling and make a finer contribution to society than is possible with the amount of education they have received.

In the following case a boy with real initiative and ability might have been saved from trouble had he had proper guidance.

Steve, a sixth-grade pupil thirteen years of age, is a chronic truant and a troublemaker. His fifth-grade teacher's written comments on him were that he was troublesome, noisy, and lazy, and a poor reader. His home-room teacher warned: "Watch out for Steve. He's a troublemaker!"

The first time that his sixth-grade teacher, Mr. Mack, reprimanded him for unnecessary disturbance, he kept Steve in for a few minutes at recess. Mr. Mack explained what type of behavior he expected in the classroom and then discussed Steve's likes and dislikes in school. Steve liked arithmetic and sports but disliked reading. Mr. Mack tried to give him more personal attention in his reading and praised him for the good work he did in arithmetic. They became friends and Steve gave Mr. Mack little trouble.

When he learned that Steve would thumb a ride to the county seat— six miles away—to earn money by sweeping out a drugstore, washing store windows, and other odd jobs, Mr. Mack decided that Steve was definitely not lazy. Steve always dressed neatly and always seemed to have money to spend—money which he had earned himself. He learned, too, that Steve was considered very trustworthy by the store proprietors for whom he did odd jobs. On a number of occasions Steve was able to borrow thirty or forty dollars with which he would then buy a used motor scooter. With the help of his father, a mechanic, he would fix up the machine and resell it at a profit. Steve was a good junior businessman: trustworthy, hard working, practical, realistic, aggressive.

On the school grounds, Steve was very active. He liked to play football and basketball and was apparently well liked by the other students. Only with women teachers did he seem to have trouble.

For the rest of his sixth-grade year, Steve seemed to take more interest in reading, Mr. Mack noticed. Steve was near the top of the class in arithmetic. He grasped new materials readily and could not be considered dull or stupid. The following year, after leaving Mr. Mack's room, Steve slid back, living up to his former reputation of being a troublemaker and a chronic truant.

Considering Steve's abilities and demonstrated successes, it is difficult to blame him entirely for being a problem. He needed help—especially in English. Skilled guidance might have made school more palatable to him and might have helped him to realize his clear vocational potentials.

Lillian, unlike Steve, was a model student—but she, too, needed guidance.

This year Lillian is a senior. She will probably be valedictorian of her class. She has received nothing but A's during her entire four years in school, with the exception of a B in home economics in her freshman year. She was "guided" into home economics when she was interviewed while still in elementary school. After one year in high school, she changed to the college preparatory course.

Lillian is very popular with both the boys and the girls in her classes and clubs. She is an attractive girl and always dresses well. She is the leader in everything she undertakes. The teachers cannot give her enough work to do, and everything she attempts she does in an excellent manner. Brilliant in mathematics, she scored 148 on the Binet; when given the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, Lillian scored high in the categories she has chosen for study. She would like to be a teacher and would probably make a superlative one.

Lillian comes from a very small village about 20 miles east of school. It is generally described as a wide spot on the highway, but is not even on the main highway. There is nothing there but the general store, a gas station, and a cluster of ten houses. Lillian is the older of two daughters, her sister being three years younger. Lillian's father worked as a chopper in the woods until his back was broken by a falling tree. Lillian is now the main support of the family.

She is never seen at any of the school dances, nor does she ever attend any of the parties her peers have at their homes. Afternoons, evenings, and week ends she works as a clerk in the general store.

She is most anxious to go somewhere to college so that she can realize her ambition to become a teacher. She sees no possibility of doing so; the family simply cannot find the money.

Lillian has never received any information as to the possibility of receiving a scholarship to attend a college or university. In this the high school has failed her. She merits a scholarship; she represents the type of deserving student for whom many scholarships are set up. Lack of guidance, in this case, is resulting in the failure of a very promising student to find the opportunity she needs and deserves.

Community-centered Problems

Group life does not grant to all group members the same degree of esteem and acceptance. In all groups, whether the basis of their association is a neighborhood, an organization, a classroom, or even a family, some individuals lead and others follow, some individuals are admired and re-

spected and others ignored, some are centers of attraction and others gather about them in varying degrees of closeness.

Sociologists divide society into three broad classes, upper, middle, and lower, which they further subdivide into upper-upper and lower-upper, upper-middle and lower-middle, and upper-lower and lower-lower.[7] Attitudes toward social class pervade all society, entering into the schools even as early as the middle elementary grades and exerting an increasingly strong influence through high school and college. The most obvious example of the expression of social attitudes in the school is, of course, college fraternities.

The concept of caste and class naturally arouses much resentment in a democracy. But even though many people in our society can reconcile this concept with democratic principles only by emphasizing that the individual of energy and talent can lift himself from one class to another, exclusiveness on the basis of social class does to some extent exist and must be realistically faced.

The social attitudes of young people are probably established in the home and either reinforced or modified at school. In many high schools, social prestige is reflected in the amount of respect accorded to the different curricula: students taking college-preparatory courses have the highest prestige; students in commercial courses are next most highly regarded; students in trade courses, such as radio and auto mechanics, rank third in the social scale; and students in agricultural courses stand at the bottom of the hierarchy. This ranking, of course, reflects social prestige in society at large.

In some high schools, such significance is attached to social-class distinctions that a boy taking college "prep" will not date a girl in the commercial courses and a radio student will not be close friends with a student in agriculture. For any student to cross these lines in either direction is to be daring and iconoclastic. The effects of such sharp class structuring upon the mental health of individuals are clear: the student who is not at the very top feels inferior; and the student who is at the very bottom feels very inferior. A radio student who asks a candidate for Vassar for a date and is snubbed is damaged in his self-esteem. The secretarial student who refuses to date a boy because he is studying agriculture feels guilty; if she does not refuse him, she may be snubbed in turn by her peers.[8]

Studies show that young people from the economically privileged families have the reputation of being brighter, cleaner, and better mannered than

[7] *Ibid.*, Chapters 7 and 19.
[8] *Ibid.*, Chapter 1.

their economically deprived classmates, who are considered to be bad-mannered, unwashed, and ungifted.[9] Although such generalizations are, of course, ridiculous, they are widely accepted and cause real suffering for many boys and girls.

Exclusionism may also be based on criteria peculiar to specific groups. The day students at boarding schools, for example, are usually regarded as not of the elite but as second-class citizens within the school community and are discriminated against in many activities; similarly, children who live outside a district and commute to school are often regarded and treated as "outsiders." Some adults may consider such hardships trivial, but individuals who have experienced this kind of "apartness" remember it as causing acute distress.

In addition to class discrimination, caste discrimination is practiced against children of various minority groups. Although nonsegregated public schools do help—sometimes very effectively—to counteract discrimination, children tend to reflect whatever intolerant attitudes exist in their community; these attitudes are sometimes deep-seated and difficult to eradicate. Membership in a religious group which lacks prestige in the town—Catholic, Jewish, Mormon, or Seventh-Day Adventist groups or Jehovah's Witnesses, to list a few—can cause, as a result of pressure of local attitudes, uneasy self-consciousness and feelings of persecution. Young people of Negro, Mexican, Oriental, and Indian descent are especially likely to suffer from this racial discrimination. Segregation—in schools, in recreational facilities, in swimming pools, in residential areas—creates much ill will and resentment in minority groups and guilt feelings in the majority group. These feelings may express themselves in mutual hostility and in problem behavior such as teen-age gang fights.

Sometimes special circumstances for which the child himself is not responsible—such as having a relative who was jailed for a crime, or having parents who came from a country with which this nation is at war (as during World Wars I and II), or being a member of a group resented by the community as the Oklahoma and Arkansas migrants were resented by the people of small towns in interior California during the depression—make him an object of dislike and distrust in his school community.

Feelings are facts. An individual who feels himself to be an outsider in the vital world of his contemporaries—an inferior, a barbarian, an alien unworthy of esteem—carries an inescapable burden of unhappiness and of diminished confidence and self-respect; and he is very likely to be too

[9] Bernice Neugarten, "Social Class and Friendship Among School Children," *Am. J. Sociol.*, LI:4 (Jan. 1946), 303-313.

obsessed with his emotional problems to be able to devote full energy to the task of learning. As a result, he will fail to achieve his full learning potential; for the rest of his life, moreover, he may be hampered by the psychological ill effects of this early discrimination.

The conscientious teacher who is aware of these cultural hazards to the mental health of her students knows that she cannot function effectively as an instructor until all of them have been helped to free themselves as much as possible of their emotional blocks to learning.

Case Study: A Community-centered Problem

It is not always a simple matter to say that a problem is centered solely in the home, or solely in the school, or solely in the community. The case of Frank illustrates an emotional problem growing out of home conditions which might never have caused difficulties for Frank if he had had proper guidance during the years he attended high school or if the community in which he lived had been different. Frank's problem, basically a reaction to poverty, would not have existed if his community had not been one in which class distinctions were extreme. In this sense it may be called a community-centered problem.

Frank's grades were above average in high school, and his attendance record was almost perfect. However, as with many youngsters of high school age, there were aspects of his adolescent life with which he needed help.

He was a small boy, but the disadvantage of his short stature of 5 feet, 5 inches, was offset by his sturdy 135 pounds. He was good looking: square jaw, straight black hair. Physical records showed that he was far advanced toward physical maturity for his 15 years. He was teased consistently by the other boys because he already possessed a heavy beard which required shaving every other day.

Miss Lewis, his English teacher, had known Frank for many years as a student of her Sunday-school class and was well acquainted with the family. The father farmed a small 40-acre irrigated plot, which was quite heavily mortgaged. Frank's mother was a gracious, charming woman who spent all her time at home, busy with farm chores and two other, smaller children. Their home consisted of a small, unplastered adobe house with no bathroom or running water.

Miss Lewis was concerned about Frank because he entered no extracurricular activities, had no associations or dates with girls, and always put forward a hardened, serious manner. In his many private talks with

her, he constantly stated that he was a "woman hater" and did not have time for outside activities because he spent all his spare time at work on the farm. She managed to cajole him into one date with a girl in his class with whom he was actually infatuated. Afterward he said he considered the date a failure because his father's car was very old and he was so tense and shy that he did not know what to talk about.

Frank appeared to be suffering from his upper-lower-class status. His intelligence, ability, and good looks made him well liked; but his homemade clothes, poor family, and precocious physical maturity made him withdraw from his peer group and a normal adolescent life. He hated farm work, and his dislike made him work all the harder chopping and picking cotton, cutting and baling hay.

He graduated and enrolled in the local state college. He has changed his course twice in three years and still has not achieved the social developments he should have. Perhaps he never will. Perhaps he will never be able to forget the upper-lower-class stigma of his home background.

Summary

Behavior in the classroom is often a reflection of strain and pressure originating outside the school. In order to help her students learn, the teacher must cope with their emotional problems. Although there may be only a few students in a class who are seriously disturbed, these students require a disproportionate amount of the teacher's time and attention; even without these special problems, the demands on the teacher's time and energy are great, since even normal young people have crises in which they need help. The teacher must, therefore, assume that even the most capable and serene of her students may at one time or another have a block to learning which can be removed only through her efforts.

Enabling students to master subject matter is only one of the important functions of the school; it is equally important that schools help students grow up to be mature, self-reliant, resourceful, and happy individuals. In fact, the goal of optimum academic achievement can be reached only by helping young people in their over-all achievement and growth. To work toward this end, teachers need the skilled help of guidance counselors.

Although counseling has idealistic goals, it is a very practical service, for it can increase educational efficiency in several ways. It can improve the process of programming students into courses in secondary schools; when their aptitudes and interests are known and used as directives, students can be given programs in which they will be contented and successful. Counsel-

ing can help in discovering who are the gifted and retarded students and how their needs can be met. And the lonely, rejected, and unhappy students can be discovered through counseling and helped to win friendship and recognition among their peers. Furthermore, counseling can reveal which students have mental-hygiene problems that are too serious for either teachers or counselors to handle; these students need competent professional assistance.

Typical emotional problems of young people can be conveniently classified as home-centered, school-centered, and community-centered. Obviously, a problem originating in one of these areas may cause misbehavior in another.

Home-centered problems have many sources. Typical causes are parental pressure upon children for achievement, parental demand for behavior inappropriate at the child's maturity level, parental rejection, lack of parental warmth and affection, an emotional climate in the home of conflict, insecurity, and depression, sibling rivalry, failure of parents to help children gain self-reliance, overworking and exploitation of children, and conflict between parent and peer-group behavior standards.

School-centered problems are in many cases no less complicated than home- and community-centered problems, which in their origins are more remote from the school. The student who finds the task of achieving belongingness among his peers difficult will have little zest and energy left for learning. The problem of initial adjustment to school may be difficult because of physical or mental deficiencies, cultural handicaps such as alien family background and language difficulties, or economic handicaps such as poverty. Frequent changes of school, which children of migrant workers, for example, must make, not only cause repetition of the ordeal of adjusting to new schools but also, because of the break in continuity in classwork, in many cases retard learning. In some cases teacher bias creates subtle or even open rejection of a student. Negative elements in the teacher's basic attitude toward a group may critically affect the emotional climate for learning in a classroom. If discipline is too strict or competition too severe, some students will be too insecure to learn.

Community-centered problems arise when community life fails to offer all members of the group the same degree of esteem and acceptance. Caste and class attitudes operate in the school. Students who lack social prestige are apt to feel inferior, with harmful effects upon their mental health. Members of minority groups that lack prestige are apt to feel looked down upon by their school peers. Such feelings impose upon the student a burden of unhappiness and diminished confidence and self-respect which leaves him unable to devote his full energy to the task of learning.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. The anecdote at the beginning of this chapter illustrated behavior produced by extreme circumstances: the child who came to school hungry because his parents had so little food they could feed their children only by turns, expressed his resentment by unsocial deportment. If you were the principal in this case, how would you treat such a culprit?

2. Another anecdote in this chapter described a pupil court in an elementary school. Children, when placed in the position of meting out penalties to other children, are apt to be severe. What is your opinion of the pupil-run court as a student-government device? What do you think were the effects upon this boy of being put on trial and sentenced for his particular "crime" before the whole assembly of pupils? Can you prepare a list of regulations which you think should govern the proceedings of such a judicial body?

3. What is meant by the terms *developmental tasks* and *sequence of growth?* (See Chaps. 3 and 4.) From the available child-development literature, prepare such a sequence for early childhood, later childhood, early adolescence, and adolescence. Describe some individuals you have known personally in whose lives some of these tasks were not achieved, or were achieved out of the usual sequence.

4. The expression "Be your age!" is a familiar one. In textbook language it concerns self-acceptance and can be paraphrased, "Accept yourself for what you are." Hence it refers to a developmental task not only of growing children but of adults, as well. Make a list of developmental tasks that will serve as a set of criteria by which to judge maturity.

It is possible that some people may object to the idea of "accepting yourself as you are" on the grounds that this concept could be interpreted to

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mean that one should make no effort at self-improvement. Do you think that this is a valid criticism of the concept of self-acceptance?

5. One important developmental task is "acceptance of others." Elaborate upon this concept. What meanings do you see in it?

Many people fail to achieve this task. What do you think are causes for this failure? What group methods can the classroom teacher use to help her pupils grow in acceptance of individuals who are "different"? How would you, as a counselor, work to improve the attitudes of an elementary-school student who does not accept people of different race or color? Of a high-school pupil? Of a college student?

6. What developmental task is involved in each of the following situations?

a. A woman of 55 refuses to tell her age, has her hair tinted, wears "junior miss" clothes, uses slang, avoids going anywhere with her daughter and grandchildren, likes to go to dances. . . .

b. A man of 40 is a busy executive in a factory. He has not registered to vote—politics, he says, is the business of rascals. He does not give to the Community Chest—too many of these eleemosynary institutions, he says, are milked by fund-raisers for fat salaries. He does not attend PTA meetings—he needs his evenings for rest, and, anyway, only mothers who have nothing to do but keep house attend such meetings, he says. . . .

c. A salesman of 35 likes to go to poker parties with "the boys" and always attends his college class reunions and homecoming games. He argues vociferously that women are inferior to men, pointing out that there

has never been a great woman composer, for example. He believes that the white race is superior to all other races, saying, "Look at our automobiles! Our movies! Our sanitation!"

d. A woman of 45 is very impatient with her son-in-law and considers him lacking in initiative, in brains, in good manners, in taste. Her daughter, she tells anyone who will listen, has been dragged down by him, as evidenced by her mistakes in training her small children.

7. Are idealism and philanthropy the only justifications for the existence of guidance programs?

8. In your opinion, what developmental needs are customarily least well met in the elementary school? Junior high? Senior high? College?

9. Can all counseling needs of elementary-school children, as you interpret them, be met by the classroom teacher? In your opinion, how do the teachers themselves feel about this?

10. Which of the cases discussed in this chapter would you like to counsel? With which would you least like to work?

11. Prepare a case study from your experience which points up the need for counseling and guidance. Give pertinent background information about home and family, environmental influences, and needs, as you see them. Indicate whether further information would be desirable before definite action is taken.

12. You are the principal of a small high school. A parent comes to you and asks that you allow his 17-year-old son to come back to classes. The boy is mentally retarded—his I.Q. is 60 to 70—and you have no special class in which to put him. Because he cannot do passing work, you have asked his parents to get special aid for him. The parent tells you now that he cannot afford special tutoring for the boy. You tell the parent that you will let him know your decision later.

You confer with a teacher about the pupil. The teacher objects to rein-

stating him; she says the boy is a drag on any class and is a burden that should not be inflicted upon teachers with heavy teaching schedules.

You interview the boy. Does he want to come back to school? He flushes, shakes his head, and blurts out, "They tease me."

You confer with the county psychometrist. She says that the boy, if not teased and if not expected to do normal assignments, would benefit from attending classes—he likes school life and has had a friend or two.

You have a meeting with the parent to tell him your decision.

13. You are a counselor, and you are concerned about a sophomore boy about whom teachers are complaining. He falls asleep in class. He never completes assignments, does not participate in classwork, and is often truant. You ask him for a conference and discover that, at sixteen, he is small and very thin for his age, his clothes are worn jeans and a denim jacket, and he smells sweaty and looks unwashed. You wonder briefly if he is mentally retarded, but on looking over his records you discover that he has an I.Q. of 120. You tell the boy that he hasn't been performing up to his ability; the boy shrugs and says, "I guess I'm just dumb."

You have an interview with the boy's stepfather and discover that the boy is responsible for milking a dozen cows and for other chores as well before leaving for school in the morning and after he comes home in the evening. In fact, he has so much work that the youngster hardly has time to gulp a meager breakfast before dashing off to catch the bus. The stepfather says that the youngster has flighty tendencies but that he is training the boy to be a good worker in spite of his getting a better education than he, the stepfather, was able to get.

You try to convince the stepfather to give the boy a chance in school.

SELECTED READINGS

Richard D. Allen, "Let's Stop Playing with Guidance," *Education*, LVII (June 1937), 627-633.

Edna D. Baxter, *An Approach to Guidance*, Appleton-Century, 1946.

Goals, Definitions, and Principles

The counseling process has both immediate and long-range goals. The immediate goal is, of course, uppermost in the client's mind when he comes to the guidance worker with a problem about which he is confused and uncertain. He wants help to solve his difficulties here and now. The counselor, too, is interested in the immediate trouble confronting the client; and the counseling process which the guidance worker structures must include *real help in meeting the client's specific difficulty*. The counselor is interested in more than this, however, for it is also his duty to provide through counseling a learning experience for the client that will contribute not only to adjustment of immediate difficulties but also to the developing of understandings and insights which will help the client to meet new problems arising in new and ever-changing situations. This is the *long-range purpose* of the counseling process. Counseling should contribute to the development of responsible independence and realistic self-understanding.[1]

The experience of counselors has been that this long-range, educational objective of counseling is not served when the counselor gathers and weighs the data, analyzes the material, projects the various solutions, and, finally, advises the client what to do. Although such unilateral action may help the student to overcome an immediate difficulty, it does not contribute to his ability to use his own resources to meet new problems. It may, indeed, have the contrary effect of reinforcing his tendency to depend upon others to guide him through difficulties.

The Educational Setting of Counseling

This view of counseling, as having both immediate and long-range goals, is consistent with the generally accepted idea of the purposes of education in a democracy. Several years ago, the Educational Policies Commission of the American Council on Education formulated four general areas of responsibility of educational programs as follows:

(1) To aid each child to achieve self-realization.
(2) To aid each child to develop satisfying human relationships.

[1] See Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 1; and Jane Warters, *Techniques of Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951, Chapter 1.

(3) To aid each child to achieve economic efficiency.

(4) To aid each child to develop attitudes of civic responsibility.[2]

The school program that undertakes to serve these purposes will be concerned with individual development and adjustment. Accepting the necessity of including in its curriculum such cultural assets as the three R's and the traditional subjects of study, it will also be concerned with individual differences, with individual and group health, with play activities, with student participation in school government, with part-time jobs and work skills, and with individual and group interrelationships and attitudes. The school that serves such objectives thus places great emphasis on self-finding, self-responsibility, and growth in independent thought and action. It is important that school counseling personnel examine their contribution to the fulfillment of these objectives.

The administration of each school and each class, however, differs with the attitudes of its administrators and teachers. Many "control minded" administrators see the function of the school as the transmission of subject-matter content and adult-determined behavior patterns; in schools governed by this attitude, conformity is more highly valued than independent action. Administrators and teachers who have what has been called a "personnel point of view"[3] give greater recognition to individual differences, emphasizing exploration and self-finding activities. In most schools, both types of educational theory may be found. Within the same school, some teachers may teach skill and content to a group as a unit and demand conformity to external standards, whereas others are primarily interested in the motivation of individual growth and development.

It is in such varied settings that school counselors must work with individuals—individuals, moreover, who come from an endless variety of home and community settings and whose lives have been influenced by infinitely varied patterns of interpersonal relationships. The counselor, therefore, daily sees clients who come from vastly different emotional worlds. In order that he may maintain a consistency of functioning amid such variable circumstances, it is important that the counselor have a clear understanding of his role, his attitude toward the client, his basic purposes, and his relationships to other staff members.

Although the principles governing counseling attitudes and techniques as developed in this chapter are focused upon school counseling, they apply, with certain essential differences, to counseling in hospitals and

[2] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, N.E.A., 1952, Chapter 1.

[3] Jane Warters, *High School Personnel Work Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, Chapter 2.

clinics. These differences derive from the dissimilarities between the school situation and the strictly therapeutic situation: the school counselor is concerned primarily with normal people, works in an institution which has development and learning as its chief objectives, and is part of a team which includes teachers and administrators. Furthermore, in addition to counseling, the school guidance worker usually has so many other duties that he can devote only a limited amount of time to any one pupil.

Counseling Defined

A doctoral candidate observed on his final examination, after a rather thorough consideration of contemporary guidance literature, "Counseling appears to be the most defined yet least understood aspect of the total guidance process." In the attempt to define counseling, the term has been qualified by many adjectives: *personal* counseling, *educational* counseling, and, in recent years, *directive* counseling, *nondirective* counseling, and others. The doctoral candidate quoted above might have added that although counseling has been defined as "the heart of the guidance program," no clear description of this heart has been made.

A writer's definition of counseling derives largely from his position with respect to various schools of thought, sets of procedures, and techniques in counseling.[4] The present writer views counseling as a series of direct contacts with the individual aimed at offering him assistance in adjusting more effectively to himself and to his environment. This very broad definition places emphasis not so much upon the techniques employed as upon the *relationships which exist between counselor and client*. Since this definition is very broad, it may help the reader to know that this book presents an eclectic treatment of present-day views of counseling and that underlying this eclecticism are two basic assumptions:

1. *Behavior is learned and is modifiable.*[5]

Any person who undertakes the process of counseling must logically accept the principle that behavior patterns are modifiable. The inference to be drawn from this principle is that the individual is not a pawn in a game played by environmental forces, but that he has, within limits, a capacity for decision and for changing himself. Although the behavior patterns of

[4] C. Gilbert Wrenn, *Student Personnel Work in College*, Ronald Press, 1951, Chapter 3.

[5] For an extensive discussion of this principle, see Gordon W. Allport, *Becoming*, Yale University Press, 1955, Chapter XX.

any individual are, to a great extent, determined by the experiences of infancy and early childhood, the possibility remains that, through experience, an individual can and will change. It is to help the individual make these changes toward better adjustment that counseling is undertaken.

2. Counseling is a learning situation.[6]

In order to provide a situation in which the individual is helped to change and develop, emotional interaction between counselor and client is important. This dynamic interaction not only brings new data to the counseling process but establishes a vital human relationship.

Counseling is a learning situation in many senses. Basically it is intended to help the client help himself, to understand himself and his environment. These understandings derive not only from the free expression of feelings and attitudes and the free recital of experiences but also from the study of the new data resulting from responses to questions or from tests, community surveys, and examination of the client's background.

Although these two statements remain hypotheses not yet scientifically proved, they seem to fit into the common-sense understanding of the counseling process and the counseling relationship.

Principles of the Counseling Process

Perhaps the concept of the counseling process that is to be developed in this book can be most clearly explained in terms of four principles (which will be elaborated later). These principles are:

1. Each client must be accepted as an individual and dealt with as such.[7]

The counselor must have genuine respect for the rights of the individual —for his right to fail as well as to succeed. This respect constitutes the basis of the principle that the final responsibility for changing and directing his life is the client's own.

2. Counseling is basically a permissive relationship.

The permissiveness of the counseling situation is expressed in two ways. In the first place, the client as well as the counselor may terminate the

[6] See H. B. and P. N. Pepinsky, *Counseling Theory and Practice*, Ronald Press, 1954, Chapter 2.
[7] See Carl R. Rogers, *Client-Centered Therapy*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951, Chapter 1.

relationship. If this were not the case, counseling would contain a coercive element which would reduce it to the status of exhortation and advisement. For whatever reason a client comes to a counselor, whether his coming is his own idea or results from the suggestion of someone else, the counselor, motivated by a desire to help the client resolve the difficulty, receives the client as he is with his problem. Thus, another way in which the permissiveness of the counseling situation expresses itself is in the counselor's refraining from attempting to instill in the client an acceptance of or conformity with his own preconceived ideas.

3. *Counseling emphasizes thinking* with *the individual.*[8]

Thinking *with* must be distinguished from thinking *about* or thinking *for*. It is the counselor's role to sum up certain aspects of the client's frame of reference: to consider all of the forces that surround him, to enter into the thought processes of the client and work with him on his problem. This does not mean that the counselor loses his own individuality and plays the role of the client. The counselor remains a distinct individual—presumably a more mature person with a greater background of experience. His thinking with the client does not preclude bringing new data into the situation, for the counselor may and often should use objective techniques for analyzing the environment and psychological measures for analyzing the individual.

4. *All of these principles are consistent with the ideals of democracy.*

Democratic ideals demand acceptance of the individual and a genuine respect for the rights of others. "Acceptance of the individual" means recognition of the right of anyone to be "different"—in race, color, religion, and, within the limits of law and order, the way in which he earns his livelihood and the kind of education he chooses in order to prepare himself for his trade or career. In the light of such differences of interests and abilities, we provide a wide diversity of educational offerings in our schools so as to make a broad range of choice possible. The only guarantee each of us has of his rights of free selection is that they are granted equally to all. The counseling process is consistent with this ideal of respect for individual preference in that, instead of being dictatorial and directive, it recognizes individual differences and is permissive.

[8] See L. M. Brammer and E. L. Shostrom, *The Dynamics of Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953, Chapter 3.

Counseling and Teaching: Differentiation

The counseling relationship is a distinctly different one from the pupil-teacher relationship. F. W. Fowler, in distinguishing the essential elements of counseling as they differ from teaching, examines such areas as guiding philosophy, end results, presence of a learning situation, methods of operation, and school organization, and arrives at two unique elements.

The first of these is the *nature of the pupil's problem* which occasions the counseling relationship—for example, neglect of class assignments, an accusation of stealing, or disruption of class activities. The second element is the *focus of attention*—that is, the point of primary allegiance of the counselor.[9] Whereas the teacher's primary allegiance is to the group as a whole and to the subject being taught, the counselor's primary allegiance is to the individual child and his problems of adjustment. The difference is one of emphasis, of course, for actually, teacher and counselor share a common philosophy and a common responsibility; both operate in the same school, which has a certain attitudinal tone and a certain degree of acceptance of social responsibility; both are interested in the development of each child as a whole individual; and both provide learning situations. Not only in the classroom but in the counseling situation, too, each child must be provided with the opportunities, the motivation, the kind of environment that will establish a definite learning situation. Teacher and counselor alike use certain methods: a clear statement of the problem, examination of relevant data, projection of hypotheses, tentative testing of these hypotheses against their respective conclusions, and acceptance or rejection of various hypotheses. Finally, both teacher and counselor work in the school organization. The school as an institution within society provides a physical setting and certain social and psychological conditions which influence the work of all members of the school team.

Between counselor and administrator, however, the difference of emphasis is much more marked. In general, the school administrator is concerned with the smooth working of the entire school as an institution. His reaction to the problem of any individual child must always be conditioned by the fact that his primary responsibility is to the whole group within the community and that the over-all working of the institution must be given paramount consideration in any decision he makes. The counselor has no such external responsibility. His attention is given primarily to the individual who comes to him with a problem. The data which a counselor gathers as he works with a client are essentially those which apply to the

[9] F. W. Fowler, "Is Counseling Unique?" *Utah Guidance News Letter*, Jan. 1949, 1.

client's individual problems, the choices before him, and the thinking processes relative to the resolution of his problems.

These two factors—the area of the counselor's chief responsibility and the material with which he deals—probably most sharply delineate the role of the counselor in the school situation.

Contributions to Counseling

Counseling owes much to developments in the other behavioral sciences, particularly in psychology and sociology, whose contributions to the understanding of the individual in his culture are basic to effective counseling. In sociology, systematic studies have borne fruit in techniques for group study and in facts and theories of group action. In psychology, research and the application of its findings have provided concepts and techniques for the better assessment and understanding of individual characteristics. These developments will be briefly traced here.

Backgrounds in Psychology

Wilhelm Wundt, a German psychophysiologist, introduced to psychology the idea of individual differences.[10] His interest in the measurement of differences in physiological responses of individuals is the foundation of modern experimental, or "brass instrument," psychology. This interest in individual differences led to the development of intelligence and aptitude tests. Alfred Binet, rejecting the physiological approach of Wundt, succeeded in measuring differences in intellectual functioning by using problem-solving techniques in place of Wundt's measures of physiological response. Binet's ideas have had great influence in the field of intelligence and aptitude testing. An outstanding accomplishment in this field was the standardizing, by Bennet, Seashore, and Wesman, of the Differential Aptitude Test Battery, which has made it possible to evaluate individual differences against a common norm in a wide range of abilities. These tests are limited at present to use at the high-school level.

Although recognition of the fact that individuals differ in their ability to learn may be traced back to Comenius, Locke, and Rousseau, modern psychology has documented this concept by measuring individual differences scientifically. To supplement the former simple recognition that indi-

[10] E. G. Boring, H. S. Langfeld, and H. P. Weld, *Foundations of Psychology*, John Wiley and Sons, 1948, Chapter 1.

viduals do differ, psychologists have supplied the counseling profession with detailed, scientific expositions of *how* and to *what degree* people differ.[11]

Perhaps the most significant contribution of psychologists in this field has been to shed light on the dynamics of personality development and to clarify the role of the unconscious in the functioning of the personality. Much of contemporary counseling practice is based on the psychoanalytic axiom that anxiety is the conscious expression of repressed fears and is reduced when the fears are brought to conscious awareness. This psychobiological school of psychiatry, led by Adolf Meyer, has traditionally dealt with the full range of mental illness rather than with the narrow range of abnormality which has been the concern of most psychoanalysts. As a result of the delineation by psychiatry of many problems characteristic of severe psychoses, counselors can more readily recognize early signs of severe mental illness and undertake to secure competent professional treatment for the client. Clinical and abnormal psychology have contributed further to the counselor's ability to recognize and deal with the more severe cases which are encountered in every counseling center serving the "normal" college student.

Counseling specialists have recently sought to synthesize in their thinking theories of learning and theories from the psychoanalytic or psychiatric fields. Much can be learned, Shoben concludes, by relating specific theories of learning to counseling.[12] An additional study based on this relationship is Magaret's attempt to explain what may happen between counseling sessions as a function of what occurred during the interview.[13] This marriage of counseling and learning theory appears to be a fruitful one; certainly the science of psychology can be of immeasurable help in solving problems faced by the counselor.

Backgrounds in Sociology

Sociology is primarily concerned with the study of group behavior. Sociologists study groups of any size and composition, focusing on subjects ranging from the interaction between two people to world population trends.

[11] Anastasi, Foley, and Tyler have made significant contributions in this field, and Alexander has supplied data and techniques of importance in counseling theory. See A. Anastasi and J. P. Foley, *Differential Psychology*, Macmillan Co., 1949; Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953; Franz Alexander, *Fundamentals of Psychoanalysis*, George Allen and Unwin, 1949.
[12] Edward J. Shoben, Jr., "Counseling and the Learning of Integrative Behavior," *J. Couns. Psychol.* 2:1 (Feb. 19, 1954), 42-48.
[13] Ann Magaret, "Generalization in Successful Psychotherapy," *J. Consulting Psychol.*, 14 (1950), 64-70.

Sociological studies of particular importance to the counselor—in the areas of the family, youth, occupational groups and trends, population growth and mobility, and social-status groups—form a body of data which help the counselor to keep his thinking about his client's problems in the focus of the client's social environment.[14]

Studies of the family provide an example of the sociologist's assistance to the counselor. Studies of the family have revealed that, during the past hundred years, there has been a definite shift in the functions of the family: the family's educational function has markedly declined; the family as an economically self-sufficient unit has virtually disappeared; the traditional role of the family in religious instruction has declined, and the same is true of the family as a recreational center; even the protective role of the father, which required him to keep a gun in the house, has been assumed by the state. An apparent shift had occurred, as well, in the emotional relationships existing within the family; today, in America, families tend to be dominated by the mother rather than by the father. The reason for such a trend is probably the fact that the father's work takes him away from the home for most of the day, with the result that he is only slightly involved in the work and play activities of the children. Also, because he is away from home so much, his interests tend to be drawn toward people and events outside the home. The mother, however, is with the children for a much greater part of their waking hours than is the father, and it is she who takes care of them, supervises their home and school activities, plays with them, and as a result develops a much closer parent relationship with them than does the father. Sociologists refer to this trend as "Momism" and have tended to develop a whole theory of the American character around it.[15]

An understanding of these social trends can help the counselor achieve a deeper understanding of his client. For example, in the light of the data concerning domination of the family by the mother, it would be expected that the typical college student might be more concerned about what his mother feels or says concerning him than about his father's reactions. The counselor who overlooks so significant a change in the structure of our society and continues to refer problems in authoritarian relationships solely to the influence of the father or other male figure may fail to help his client to recognize a crucial aspect of his problem.

Industrial and occupational trends are of particular importance to counselors. (Developments in the field of occupational information are treated in Chapter 11.) Sociologists have made studies of trends in American labor

[14] R. H. Mathewson, *Guidance Policy and Practice*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapters 3 and 4.
[15] Paul H. Landis, *Adolescence and Youth*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947, Chapter 12.

as applied to youth, perhaps the most outstanding of which has been the rural-urban migration. In 1900, one of every two workers was employed in agriculture; in 1950, only one of every eight workers was so employed.[16] Other significant trends include an increase in organization of labor, an increase in numbers of women in industry, an increase in employment among married women, a decrease in the number of skilled workers relative to the number of unskilled or semiskilled workers, and an increasing average age in the labor force. Counselors who understand these trends can help clients to gain a more realistic view of opportunities ahead.

Schools of Counseling

Counseling has developed through a series of phases which involved first vocational guidance, then application of objective data to the education of the individual, then consideration of feelings and relationships in addition to objective factors. In each phase, the role of the counselor has received different emphasis. Experimentation in counseling has been continuous, has taken place in a variety of settings, and has been based on a variety of theoretical concepts of personality. And different experiences have tended to shape and crystallize different points of view. During the past quarter century, the different approaches to counseling have assumed such definite character that several schools of thought can now be clearly identified.

Nondirective Counseling

No serious student of counseling in the past ten years can fail to observe the influence of nondirective counseling upon the role and attitudes of the counselor. Carl Rogers and his followers support nondirective counseling, holding that the nondirective group has made significant contributions in the area of counselor attitudes, the counseling process, and the techniques and need for evaluation of the outcomes of counseling.

Rogers has summarized the major characteristics of nondirective counseling as follows:[17]

(1) The counselor operates on the principle that the client is basically responsible for himself and that he must retain this responsibility.

(2) The counselor operates on the principle that the client has a strong drive to become mature, socially adjusted, independent, and productive

[16] Carroll L. Shartle, *Occupational Information*, Prentice-Hall, 1946, Chapter 11.
[17] Carl R. Rogers, *Client-Centered Therapy*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.

and that the counselor must depend upon this force, not upon his own influence, for therapeutic change.

(3) The counselor creates a warm and permissive atmosphere in which the individual is free to bring out any feelings or attitudes he has, regardless of how unconventional, absurd, or contradictory they may seem. The client is as free to withhold expression as to give expression to his feelings.

(4) The limits placed on behavior are as simple as the time limit to the interview. In the interview, the counselor uses only those procedures and techniques that will convey his understanding of the emotionalized attitudes expressed and his acceptance of them. This understanding is perhaps best conveyed by a sensitive reflection and clarification of the client's attitudes. The counselor's acceptance implies neither approval nor disapproval.

(5) The counselor refrains from any expression or action which is contrary to the preceding principles—that is, he refrains from questioning, probing, interpreting, advising, suggesting, or reassuring. In regard to this principle, Rogers states that if the counselor can create a relationship emphasizing warmth, understanding, freedom from threat, and acceptance of the client as a person, the client will drop his natural defensiveness and make use of the situation for growth.[18] This principle places the primary emphasis of counseling upon the attitude of the counselor and the actual process of counseling.

The nondirective group has made the further assumption that there is within the individual a life force which pushes him toward adjustment. Counseling is thus conceived to be a process of helping the client to free himself from tensions and conflicts which obstruct the utilization of this life force, with the counselor acting as a kind of catalyzing agent through the warm, permissive atmosphere he is able to create in the counseling situation. He seeks to give the client the opportunity, largely through talking but also through other expressive mechanisms, to release hindrance feelings, to gain a clearer concept of himself in a situation, and, through these processes, to do his own planning. Although critics have pointed out that there is as yet no substantial research-based verification of this concept of an inner force which motivates the client toward good adjustment, research on the practical results of nondirective counseling does indicate that this type of counseling is effective.

The nondirective-counseling school has made three major contributions: it has developed the concept of acceptance, it has defined the various steps of the counseling process, and demonstrated the importance of evaluation processes.

(1) The whole concept of "acceptance" has been greatly clarified in the

[18] *Ibid.*, Chapter 2.

reports of this group and has been given substance and meaning. In non-directive counseling, acceptance means more than a perfunctory acknowledgment that the client is a person: the meaning is broadened to imply a genuine recognition of the right of the individual to agree or disagree, to be friendly or unfriendly, to give information or withhold it, to act or not to act. In this enlarged concept, acceptance as an attitude characterizes the entire counseling situation, and such words as "permissive" and "nonjudgmental" as applied to the counseling situation are used to indicate that the counselor refrains from making moral judgments about the client, refrains from persuasion or coercion, does not permit attitudes suggesting superiority or inferiority to enter the relationship, and strives always to guarantee that he and the client make an honest attempt to work together.

(2) The nondirective-counseling school has given clear expression to the view that the counseling process is itself a learning situation. The educative effects of counseling are not dependent upon the particular plan or decision arrived at as an end result but are a product of the process itself, of the client's development during the course of counseling.

Twenty years ago, the role of the counselor was closely identified with that of the "expert consultant," and the emphasis was placed not so much on the process as on the outcome. The counselor undertook to gather the data which would provide a basis for diagnosing the problem of the client, proceeded to synthesize and project these data into their several possible solutions, and finally—with something of an air of mysterious authority—advised the client on what he might do to solve his problem. Attention in this whole process was directed toward the final solution of the immediate difficulty, and whatever evaluation was undertaken was usually an evaluation of the outcome in terms of such external criteria as greater academic successes, fewer absences, fewer personal conflicts, and, perhaps, fewer overt maladjustments.

The emphasis of Carl Rogers and his followers has been felt not only in the work of counselors but also in the attitudes and relationships of teachers and administrators who have been introduced to this literature. One result has been that many teachers have developed a greater understanding of the need to accept the child as a person and to consider his feelings in the total school situation and have, indeed, adapted nondirective techniques to the teaching process itself.

It is probably accurate to state that the major contributions of the nondirective counseling group have been in the area of counselor attitudes, which determine the role that the counselor plays not only in a specific interview but also in the total school and community situation.

(3) The nondirective group has made a third major contribution in the area of *evaluation*. This group deserves much credit for initiating in the general literature on counseling the kind of research methodology that gives attention to the dynamic nature of the counseling process and to the evaluation of the client's feelings about himself and his problem. The use of recording equipment and the practice of reporting complete counseling interviews have given a more objective basis to the evaluation of counseling and have influenced the research and evaluation efforts of all students in the field. More and more counseling offices are being equipped with recorders, and counselors are making use of this device in order to test their own effectiveness in dealing with clients. The techniques of recording and of analysis of the counseling process offer fruitful opportunities for the counselor, regardless of his orientation.

Clinical Counseling

Another group of counselors and writers call themselves clinical counselors. E. G. Williamson, of the University of Minnesota, may properly be designated the leader of the group. Certain emphases of this group are especially worthy of note: their attitudes toward acceptance, the role of the counselor, the role of the client, and the new direction of the research they have undertaken and reported. Williamson has identified as follows the steps in counseling:[19]

(1) Establishing a friendly relationship with the client.
(2) Securing a statement of the problem.
(3) Determining the data relevant to the problem.
(4) Gathering the data.
(5) Analyzing the data (that is, summarizing some of the previous steps).
(6) Diagnosing the difficulty.
(7) Projecting possible solutions.
(8) Treating the client according to the solution.

The emphasis in this list is upon the necessity for diagnosing the problem situation before any treatment is undertaken.

Williamson maintains that the counselor who undertakes to treat a client without data obtained either through psychotherapy or through environmental manipulation (see page 131) is working with inadequate information. Before the counselor is in a position to work with a client in resolving a problem situation, Williamson insists, the counselor must have sufficient

[19] E. G. Williamson, *How to Counsel Students*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939, Chapters 1 to 4.

data available and must analyze these data and the relationships apparent in them to the extent that he obtains some understanding himself of the causes of the problem behavior.

RESPONSIBILITY IN CLINICAL COUNSELING. Although it is generally assumed that the clinical counselor is directive, examination of the writings of clinical counselors demonstrates that this assumption is inaccurate. According to the principles of this school of counseling, the client must, throughout the counseling process, be accepted as a person; final responsibility for decision rests with the client and *not* with the counselor, whose presence is intended merely to assist the client in solving his problem and not to impose an external solution upon him.

Certain aspects of the counselor's acceptance of the client do differ sharply, however, from the acceptance of the nondirectivists. To the clinical counselor, acceptance does not imply that the counselor will altogether refrain from making judgments or that he will play no active role in the counseling process. Thus, to some extent, the clinical counselor is directive. He may at times assume a leadership role in the counseling process; he may ask questions; he may have the client provide him with a diary or autobiography; he may ask the client to take a number of tests. In short, he will direct and assist the client in the gathering of extensive data bearing upon himself and his problem. Thus both the clinical counselor and his client have specific responsibilities. Although the counselor holds that the final responsibility is the client's, the counselor will at times himself assume a great deal of responsibility in working out the counseling process: for example, he feels that it is clearly his responsibility to interpret—in language which the client can comprehend—the findings from numerous data-gathering instruments and devices. The counselor will also participate in clarifying the meanings of the various data elements in their relationship to the client's problem. And he will use his best judgment as to whether or not the client is ready, at a specific stage of the counseling process, to accept interpretations of some of the data. Because the clinical counselor feels free to assume certain responsibilities, he is able to use a greater variety of methods of treatment than the nondirective counselor. For example, clinical counselors use *environmental manipulation*: a student who is having difficulties with a certain class or teacher may be transferred to another class or teacher; a student who is having difficulty in finding an adequate social life may be directly introduced to some club or social activity and may even be urged to participate. In working with a client who requires extensive treatment, the clinical counselor will frequently use the method of the nondirective counselor: he will strive to get the client to express his feelings and his gropings for understanding, and he

will offer, in varying degree, counselor interpretation of the material presented.[20]

Thus the characteristics by which clinical counseling may be identified are its emphasis upon diagnosis, its consequent demand for adequate gathering of reliable and valid data, and its emphasis upon the responsibility of the counselor to evolve a plan of effective treatment. This method of counseling has the advantage of having been in use for many years. It provides a common-sense approach to working out a problem. It relates to school counseling perhaps more closely than any other method, because it fits well into the school context, in which moderate degrees of authority rest with the teacher, the administrator, the counselor, and other school personnel, who, like the clinical counselor, accept responsibility for knowledge, for wisdom, and for thinking.

BASIC CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE CLINICAL-COUNSELING SCHOOL. Through their research and their development of techniques, clinical counselors have made great contributions to the practice and literature of the entire counseling field. They have made especially important advances in techniques of measurement and of the gathering and analysis of data. Research on the use of data has emphasized the study of the relationships among the various kinds of data available. The need for such study has been sharpened by the realization of the value of making diagnoses and the need for prognoses based on all the available data concerning the client. Relationship studies, correlating test data with the data on school successes or failures in many areas, have shed much light on the possibility of predicting one factor when another is known. For example, studies have been made of the relationships between school or college achievement and occupational success, and between the secondary-interview (or autobiographical) material in a case study and social or personal adjustment.

Research by the clinical-counseling group has emphasized, in addition to techniques, the ultimate product of counseling—the outcomes in terms of postcounseling achievements by students. Such research is illustrated by the follow-up study which seeks to answer such questions as the following: *Has the student who has been counseled shown a better adaptation to the school program, as indicated by improved achievement in relation to aptitude and improved relationships with faculty and peers? Has the counseled student made a satisfactory postschool or postcollege relationship?* The emphasis of the research has been upon the over-all outcome, including the external, overt behavior of the client, rather than upon his feelings of adjustment or of satisfaction with the counseling process.

[20] M. E. Hahn and M. A. MacLean, *General Clinical Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, Chapters 1 and 11.

CASE STUDIES IN CLINICAL COUNSELING. The following case study is an example of counseling in which official data was carefully used. It concerns a high-school boy whose major problem centered around establishing educational and vocational goals and plans.

CASE STUDY: DAN ADAMS

Subject: Dan Adams, Altamont High School, Senior. Age, 18-11; height, 6′ 0″; weight, 167.

Health: Good physical appearance; no self- or school-reported health lacks, except mild hernia 4 years ago; doctor says should have corrective operation.

Family background: One real brother, 17, also senior at Altamont; two foster (adopted) brothers, 19, in service. Mother, 38; father, 39. Mother has some college background, acquired after children were born; father not high-school graduate. Family income originally from work as machinist, then from ownership of grocery store; family now owns a sanatorium.

Appearance: First interview, Dan wore blue denims with pegged cuffs, T shirt, saddle shoes, badly in need of haircut. Subsequently had haircut and no more pegged trousers. Very good-looking, good complexion, wavy dark hair, smiles easily and frequently.

INTERVIEWS, CHRONOLOGICAL

First Interview, May 12, 1954

It was easy to establish rapport with Dan. His manner was so friendly and open that I was a little wary of being "taken in." (By the end of the series of interviews I was convinced that Dan's manner was not an affectation and accepted his frankness, etc., as genuine.) Dan was anxious to establish the point that he was overage for his class because he quit school last year for work, then realized his "mistake" and came back to school through attending summer school for make-up work.

Present objective: To get high-school diploma (will be first on father's side of family to accomplish this). He wants to go to college, but his plans are indefinite. He is vaguely interested in three courses at Southern State: 1. English and literature, mainly to get "culture" and for own enjoyment, possible goal of teaching. ("Though it doesn't pay much." I showed him the median figures for high-school teachers' pay this year and asked if this was about what he had in mind. He was mildly impressed.) 2. Police school. 3. Music major, to develop his voice; he has vague professional aspirations, but believes this type of career is too exacting in preparation and too much subject to public caprice to be worth the gamble.

Favorite subjects: English and choir. English new development from summer-school experience. Choir has been his one sustained interest throughout high school; he sang lead in operetta this year.

Outside interests: Singing (little group of graduates), and keeping his 1947 Ford running.

Grades: A's and B's, with only one C (typing) this quarter. Past record included two failures (algebra and sophomore English), because of lack of interest in school. He is now vitally interested. (Grades checked perfectly with school records.)

Why taking interviews? Because he thinks he is competent and wants a little help in deciding what to do. His parents want him to go to college.

Plans for next interviews: Set up series of tests, Wechsler, Kuder (two), Strong, DAT (Mechanical, Abstract, Verbal, Numerical)—with idea of finding more about his strong and weak points.

Wechsler, May 19, 1954.

Results: see summary at end of study.

Second Interview, May 21, 1954

Dan expressed interest in the Wechsler. We had previously agreed that exact numerical results were misleading, but percentile or occupational norm ratings would be more meaningful. He was interested in seeing how he would compare with a chart, which we had looked at previously, giving normative professions according to AGCT scores. I told him that he was on the fringe of the top group and this could be interpreted as giving him reason to expect (competition-wise) that he would have a fair chance in any occupation in the several top brackets *for which he was emotionally and educationally suited.* This interpretation placed more importance on the remaining tests, vocational and aptitude, and served to whet his interest.

New information: Dan's interest in police work (2nd choice, 1st interview) seemed out of line with his personality; a little further reference to this fact drew the information that he was anxious to help wayward boys as a probation officer had once helped him. We discussed social service, and the idea was injected that teaching would be a means to this same end. This seemed to be a new idea to him. He took three sections of DAT, and Kuder Vocational.

Third Interview, May 24, 1954

We discussed the results of the DAT and Kuder. I thought that on the basis of median score in Abstract and low interest in Kuder computational and scientific, Dan might expect median score on the fourth section of DAT, Numerical. Took this and came out exactly on 50th percentile.

New information: We discussed the Army and the possibility that Dan might get a deferment on the basis of hernia. This was my suggestion, but Dan believed that he could conceal the condition. We discussed the advisability of having the operation before the condition became aggravated. Dan not sure of whether to go into the Army at once or to start school. We weighed advantages and disadvantages of each, and left the problem for

further consideration. We discussed vocational aspirations again, and I found that he had changed his interest in police work—he now saw it only as a means of repaying an obligation and believed that this could be done in other ways, i.e., by teaching. He thought English teaching would be a way of enjoying hobby and at same time getting training for summer-stock work and school-play directing. Teachers are pretty well paid and have much time off to follow leisure pursuits. He took the Strong and Kuder Personal tests. Next meeting, he decided, he would study San Jose State College catalogue. He left, with a decision to give thought between this and the next interview on Army and teaching-career problems.

Fourth Interview, May 28, 1954

We discussed the Kuder Personality results. His high dominant and sociable scores did not seem out of line for an English teacher interested in play directing and summer-stock work. We studied the college catalogue for music, police, English and language-arts programs. He still had no decision on the Army matter.

New information: Dan has a girl friend in Los Gatos (she graduated last year). She is pretty important to his future plans. They are thinking of getting married and both attending college. He will discuss this with her over the week end to see how it looks to her. Dan is not as concerned about getting married as about making sure that she is as educated as he is. He is now definitely considering a major in language arts and English teaching. He will also discuss this with his high-school counselor before next meeting.

Final Interview, June 1, 1954

Dan came with a partially completed application blank for San Jose State College. We talked briefly of the Strong results (musician, adv. man, lawyer, author-journalist). Then we discussed results of the last interview: 1. He talked to his girl—she wants to keep working, and wants him to go to college; they may marry. Has job checking in Safeway at $87 weekly, and is taking an English improvement course outside. 2. Going to college before going to Army—wait until taken. 3. Definitely wants language-arts and English-teaching career—prestige, hours, pay, type of work, summer opportunity. 4. Hernia operation still under consideration, may do it at once. "Was this your own decision?" I asked. Dan said yes, but it was *helped* by information on teaching conditions. Dan said that I could not possibly have pressured him into the decisions, as he did not "mold easily." He will keep in touch with me next year, as I work near San Jose State.

Summary of Interviews

I believe that Dan has made a definite and firm decision as a result of our talks. He came in without any concrete objective other than to attend

college, and left with considerable information about a teaching career, particularly in the language-arts field, and strongly expressed a desire to make this his lifework. I was concerned about the brief period of time in which this had been under serious consideration, and told him so. He assured me that the choices had been his, and that my part had been only that of giving him information, not in influencing his decision through any kind of pressure. I believe that he is well qualified and competent to enter this type of work, and hope that it is a good choice. He seems to have a mind of his own which is not easily influenced by extraneous pressures, as is evinced by his quitting school against the advice of his family and then returning to school to face more than a little nose-rubbing by his peers. His counselor, Mrs. Dorrance, and other teachers (anecdotal records) believe that he has considerable potentiality and capability. Mrs. Dorrance says that he needs "polish." I believe that he will be receptive to whatever polishing college will give him.

TEST RESULTS

Capabilities

Wechsler-Bellevue indicates high college ability, 131.
School Otis Gamma, 10/49, I.Q. 108.
School grades satisfactory, 2.56 gr-point average.
Class standing: 185.5 in class of 506.
DAT percentiles:
   70—mechanical
   88—verbal
   50—abstract
   50—numerical

Interests

Self-expressed: music, English, police
Kuder Vocational: Low in Mech., Comput., Scientific
                  25—Social Service
                  44—Clerical
                  57—Persuasive
                  77—Artistic
                  97—Literary
                  98—Musical
Kuder Personality: 96—Dominant
                   88—Sociable
                   75—Theoretical
                   35—Agreeable
                   15—Practical
Strong Vocational Interest: A   Musician
                            A— Advertising Man

A— Lawyer
A— Author-Journalist
Shaded—Policeman
B+ Aviator
B Artist

This case study furnishes an example of the work of a clinical counselor. The counselor created a permissive situation in which the student felt free to express his fears and aspirations. The counseling process, moreover, was a learning situation in which the counselor interpreted test data to the student to enable him to acquire insight into his potentialities and limitations and provided new information which enabled him to see the broad variety of occupational opportunities open to him which were more suitable than his previous, ill-considered choices. The counseling experience was permissive also in that no pressure was put upon the student to direct him toward any specific vocational selection; he was given data, time, and freedom that enabled him to make sensible decisions. The clinical counselor is at times judgmental and may make a definite effort to steer a student away from a course of action which seems clearly inappropriate: in this case, the counselor cautioned the student that he had possibly decided upon a lifework after too brief a period of consideration.

The preceding case, which involved a young adult soon to leave school, illustrates what may well have been a final counseling effort. The counselor was able to help Dan Adams form a definite, realistic educational plan, which was the immediate goal of the interviews. The counseling process varies, however, depending upon the nature of the problem and the maturity of the client. The following case study illustrates guidance efforts focused upon helping a ten-year-old boy who is a behavior problem.

BEHAVIOR STUDY: ROBERT ANDERSON

Date: 5–12–54

To: Principal
School: Lincoln
Child's Name: Anderson, Robert A.
Parent or Guardian: James and
  Dorothy
Date of Examination: 3–31–54

Age: 11-10 Date of Birth: 5–26–42
Address: 182 27th Avenue
Sources of Information: previous
  study, boy, father, teacher.

Problem: Fighting, bullying, defiance of school rules.
School History: Entered Jackson in September 1952, in 4B on transfer from Intermont, Idaho. Transferred to Latham in December 1952, and to Lincoln in March 1953. He was enrolled in the Ungraded Division of the Lincoln School after having been placed in 4A for a short period of time.

Mental: A Revised Stanford-Binet, Form L, given 1–14–53, gave the following results: C.A. 10-8, M.A. 7-4 (at least), I.Q. 69.

A Revised Stanford-Binet, Form L, given 2–25–54 yielded the following results: C.A. 11-9, M.A. 10-0 (at least), I.Q. 85 (at least).

Achievements, in February 1954, tested at a 5B level in reading and 4B in spelling and arithmetic.

Physical: Bob is a handsome boy. He was very well dressed and groomed on the day of the interview.

Social: The father reported that the parents are separated. Robert and his brother, Jimmy, age 14 (enrolled in another school), have lived with the father most of the time since the separation of the parents, while three younger children remain with the mother in Alden, Georgia. (The mother is a nurse. Her age is 30.) The father, 36 years old, operates a concession in a barber shop, which includes shoe shining and selling razor blades, shoe laces, and other small items. He has had three years of college training; his wife graduated from high school.

The teacher reported that Mr. Anderson is a partner in an additional business enterprise, a billiard parlor.

BEHAVIOR STUDY

Report from the School:

. . . Robert has been in the Primary Ungraded Division at the Lincoln School for over a year. Since his entry into the school, he has proved to be one of the most frequent violators of school and safety rules. Every teacher, monitor, and patrol boy is familiar with his deliberate violations. He has gained a reputation of being a fighter and teaser of small children. In the classroom, Robert does very little work unless directly supervised. If left on his honor, he turns out an incomplete or hastily-put-together piece of work. He refuses to accept suggestions for improvement and will either ignore them or sulkily inform the entire group that he "isn't going to do it." . . .

Many techniques have been tried out, but Robert has not responded satisfactorily to any—other than fear of his father's corporal punishment. The school has had several opportunities to speak with the father. He is sincerely interested in doing the best he can for his children but admits it is a difficult job. (Recently the older boy was sent to the Chicago Parental School.) Robert's most responsive mood is after a successful fight or after "putting one over" on a teacher or monitor. Robert is then jovial, friendly, smiling and very likeable. When his actions are reported, he readily admits his doings and proceeds to threaten everyone involved. He carries grudges and will wait for as long as two weeks to "pay back" someone. Many times he uses even a glance as a reason to hit a smaller person. Many parents have come complaining that their children are "roughed up" or "followed" or "meddled with" all the way home. One parent came each day to meet her child because Robert told the child's brother he was going to "kill him."

A recent incident was based on a threat to a girl to "smash her face in." The girl is a door monitor, and as Robert approached her post he boasted he could lie out of punishment for hurting her by saying that she tripped him first. As he passed, he hit her in the face and broke her glasses, which cut her nose. When taken to the office, he was asked to bring his father but, as usual, Robert waited two days before telling his father. Some of Robert's favorite boasts are as follows: he wants to go to a famous private school; he can't go back to Georgia because he was in trouble; his father won't come to school any more; he likes to be sent home for his father so he can stay out of school; he likes to get the teachers angry. Complaints against him are: he intimidates children ("Bring me an orange or I'll beat you up!"); has intense dislikes and few likes; teases and makes fun of others; invents and carries tales to promote fights between other pupils; doesn't permit certain pupils to talk to him or look at him; hits pupils in the classroom when coming for an oral lesson or to get paper checked or when going to the wastepaper basket. So far, the best approach toward meeting Robert's problems has been to speak to him privately and assure him that he isn't bad. He must be impressed that no one is angry with him. He is told that he could have handled the situation differently. This takes time and sometimes gets the opposite results. He doesn't respond well to praise and would rather be in the wrong than be told he is right.

Report of Conference with Father:

Mr. Anderson impressed the psychologist as an intelligent, good-looking, athletically built man who was genuinely interested in his son. During the current interview, however, Mr. Anderson was extremely defensive about Robert's behavior, admitting that Robert fights and "picks" on other children, but contending that he is under control at home, better than other children in a number of respects, and insisting that "all kids are mischievous sometime."

Mr. Anderson said that he had been helping Robert with his reading and that he visits the school regularly to check up on him. Mr. Anderson insisted that he is not too strict with the boy and contended that he does not whip him too much. He felt that his wife had been too lenient with the boys. Mr. Anderson said that he plans to enroll Robert in the Boy Scouts during the summer.

Conference with the Boy:

Robert admitted having "a little trouble with the teachers" and acknowledged having done "a lot of fighting." He claimed that other children "like to tell stories on" him and to blame him for things he has not done and that he beats them up if they tell stories that are not so. He claimed many boy friends and two girl friends. He boxes at the church gym, and plays ping pong, football, and baseball. He would like to become a baseball, football, or basketball player.

Robert said that he helps his father wash cars and shine shoes. His father whips him sometimes but not often, he said. He sees his mother during the summer and misses her. He and his brother go to movies and the gym together.

The psychologist had an impression that Robert may have some difficulties in regard to his relationship with his mother, but could not gain any corroborating evidence to support this impression.

In a telephone conference, a field adjustment teacher of the school to which Robert's brother goes stated that Mr. Anderson had been a cooperative and interested parent.

SUMMARY

According to recent test data, Robert has at least a slow average rate of mental growth with relatively adequate achievement in reading, but in spelling and arithmetic achievement he is approximately one semester and one year, respectively, below mental age expectancy. Robert is a handsome, likeable youngster, but he has been a disturbing influence at school because of his apparent open defiance of school regulations and his bullying of other children. His father appears to be an interested and intelligent parent, and has been cooperative in his contacts with the school; but his defensiveness during the current interview—possibly because he may have felt some anxiety about Robert's having been referred for the present study—interfered with the psychologist's hope of obtaining a clear picture of contributing factors in Robert's case. Inadequate control by the mother, repressive discipline by the father, and some emotional difficulties in regard to Robert's relationship with his mother are thought to be contributing factors.

It is believed that the school deserves to be commended for this boy's progress during the past year under the guidance of an understanding teacher.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Return to the regular grades. However, further counseling contacts with Robert's present teacher would be desirable in view of the teacher's rapport with the boy.

2. Future vocational elementary-school placement. It should be explained to Robert that such placement gives him a chance to make a new start in another school, and that no unfavorable records would accompany him.

3. Referral to Adjustment Teacher of Vocational Elementary School for further counseling.

4. It will help Robert, also, if as many of his teachers who can find it feasible to do so will express special interest in him.

5. Utilization of Robert's athletic ability and interest and of his leadership ability by assigning special responsibilities to him in his physical education class.

Robert's problems are, of course, too complex and too deep-seated for immediate solution. Even diagnosis is difficult because the counselor lacks the full cooperation of the boy and his father and the necessary time and personnel. The counselor, on the basis of the data available to him and of conferences with the boy and his father, developed a set of recommendations for continued guidance to help Robert to grow into a more socially mature individual. In contrast to the preceding case, in which counseling was in a sense terminal, this case illustrates a problem for the solution of which continued counseling is required. For ten-year-old Robert, counseling was far more directive than counseling for a young adult; Robert was too troubled and too immature to be expected to make important decisions for himself. Instead, the counselor made a number of general decisions in the form of recommendations concerning ways in which the school could set up a more favorable environment for Robert, ways in which he could be helped to realize his constructive potentials, and ways in which counseling could be continuously provided for him.

Other Views of the Counseling Process

Counseling and the Learning Process

As was indicated earlier in this chapter, significant efforts have been made to connect our knowledge of the learning process with counseling. Work in this area constitutes a third view of the counseling process, although its proponents do not compose so distinct a school as the non-directivist and clinical counselor.

In discussing vocational counseling techniques, Paterson states: "The vocational counseling situation is a learning situation par excellence in which the counselee attempts to learn about himself and the world of work."[21] According to Travers, "Guidance is essentially a learning situation. The term 'guidance' is used by psychologists in a different and more limited sense to denote learning situations in the achievement of insight and the resolution of intimate personal problems."[22] This statement implies that "learning" in the counseling situation involves not necessarily the acquisition of new knowledge or skills but the achievement of a new synthesis—a new, dynamic orientation toward knowledge and skills which

[21] D. G. Paterson, Gwendolyn G. Schneider, and E. G. Williamson, *Student-Guidance Techniques*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938.
[22] R. M. Travers, "A Critical Review of Techniques for Evaluating Guidance," *Ed. Psychol. Meas.*, 9 (1949), 211-225.

the client already possesses. Hence this view emphasizes the conscious gaining of insight.

According to an empiric view of the situation, unless it can be demonstrated that the learning process is present in counseling, it is not really valid to infer that the behavioral changes during and after counseling are outcomes of the counseling process.

PROBLEM SOLVING. An examination of the learning process seems to indicate that, in the aspects of it which apply to counseling, it involves what is essentially a problem-solving sequence. This does not imply that counseling is a completely rational process, for it is charged with much feeling, particularly anxiety, to which counseling techniques are applied in the hope of reducing its intensity. In addition, because in many cases certain needed facts are not known, some decisions must be made on the basis of how the client feels about a course of action. Despite these qualifications, the process may still be considered in essence a problem-solving sequence involving many cold realities, such as opportunities and entrance requirements. Hence much of the interview for educational and vocational planning can be conducted on a rational level, but the counselor's skill comes into play in helping the client to accept the facts without distortion.

The problem-solving process as described by John Dewey[23] has well-defined steps which are initiated by the awareness of the problem. He describes the process as follows: "Reflective thinking in distinction from other operations to which we apply the name of thought involves (1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, difficulty in which thinking originates, and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring to find the material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity."

Counseling is akin to this process described by Dewey. The client, perplexed and anxious, comes to the counselor, usually after giving the situation considerable thought without reaching any satisfying conclusions. He feels pressed to make a decision: *Shall I drop out of school and get a job? Shall I take college prep?* The counselor can be most effective at the point at which the client comes to him groping for methods, as well as for specific information, that will help him to solve his problems.

It will be helpful to develop further this parallel between the counseling process and Dewey's description of the structure of the thinking process. Dewey lists five factors involved in the reflective-thinking process:

(1) suggestion, in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution;
(2) an intellectualization of the difficulty that has been felt into a problem to be solved;

[23] John Dewey, *How We Think*, D. C. Heath and Co., 1933.

(3) a hypothesis to guide further observation and the collection of factual materials;

(4) the mental elaboration of the idea or supposition (reasoning);

(5) testing the hypothesis.

These steps may be applied to the counseling process somewhat as follows:

Step 1—Purpose: The client comes for counseling because he has a difficulty which arouses anxiety.

Step 2—Clarification and data collection: Step 2 involves clarification of the problem. Although clients usually realize that they have a problem, they are frequently unable to see its character and dimensions. Recognizing, for example, that they are failing in schoolwork or are not making friends, many of them fail to understand the reasons for their failures, and, in consequence, their anxiety is all the more intense.

Experimental evidence indicates that because perception is distorted by need, the first interview often necessitates clarification and definition of the problem. As Gates has expressed it, "The more accurately and completely the problem is defined, the better criteria the learner has for evaluating the appropriateness of the responses he makes to the situation or the ideas he brings to bear upon it."[24] When the problem is clarified through this communication technique, the client usually turns to the data needed for a solution. Thus, in Dewey's sequence, he enters the final phase of step 2: location, evaluation, and organization of information. In the guidance field the basic sources of information are the appraisal devices, occupational data, and consultation. The client's evaluation of data is facilitated by occupational counselors, the library, and counseling techniques in continuing interviews.

Steps 3 and 4—Hypothesis and reasoning: The counseling counterpart of steps 3 and 4 in Dewey's sequence—analyzing the data, discovering relationships, and formulating hypotheses—involves the mutual interpretation of tests and occupational data in terms of those needs and desires of the client that are consistent with the demands of the culture. The counselor and the client together examine the data for possible relationships and patterns from which to formulate tentative conclusions.

This task of drawing inferences from data is probably the most difficult step in the entire counseling process. Little information concerning its nature is available in the literature. As such educational psychologists as Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman indicate, the way in which the relationships among problems and data are formed is still a mystery; these

[24] Arthur I. Gates, Arthur T. Jersild, T. R. McConnell, and Robert G. Challman, *Educational Psychology,* Macmillan Co., 1942, Chapter 18.

psychologists suggest that both counselor and client saturate themselves with the data and then aggressively search for solutions. This searching process leads to a restructuring of the elements of the situation, which often causes the relationships to appear suddenly.[25] In some cases, the insight may appear only after an extended, systematic exploration.

This capacity for drawing inferences and achieving insight is one of the aspects of individual development and maturation. Most young people, by the time they reach the late teens and have progressed to the later years of secondary school, have achieved it. In more specific terms, the abilities here discussed have been classified by Hilgard as follows: capacity for solution, recollection of relevant past experience, arrangement of the situation for clear observation, fumbling and search, finding trial solutions which can be tested.[26]

Although the analogy between counseling as a learning process and Dewey's logical organization of the process of thinking is clearly a helpful one, it would probably not be fruitful to push it too far. Point-for-point correspondence would of course be too much to expect.

Views of the Counselor's Role

Counseling, as presented in this book, emphasizes a permissive relationship—not, however, an unstructured one. Some workers in the field would be inclined to identify the concept of counseling espoused here as moderately directive. And it is, of course, directive in the sense that it emphasizes a process and a relationship of the counselor with the client in which the counselor insists that this process of thinking go forward. Thus the counselor may be said to be directive with respect to process—directive in the sense that his role is to "guide" the client through the process of examining all relevant data, testing conclusions, and making plans for verifying tentatively accepted solutions. But he is nondirective in his relationship to the client as a person and to the goals and outcomes sought by the client.

In essence, counseling is a consultation process between two people. The subject matter, on the surface, is the immediate problem disturbing the client; actually, of course, the problem is a reflection of the client himself, of the way in which he is functioning in his environment, of his personality, of his modes of adjustment, ideals, attitudes, and habits of thought. The other participant in the consultation is the counselor, whose role may be

[25] E. G. Boring, H. S. Langfeld, and H. P. Weld, *Foundations of Psychology*, John Wiley and Sons, 1948, Chapter 7.

[26] E. R. Hilgard, "Human Motives and the Concept of the Self," *Am. Psychol.*, 4 (1949), 374-382.

directive or nondirective and may shift between the two in such a way as to meet the client's needs as the counselor understands them. Even the directive counselor, however, does not assume the role of an authority who preaches and urges; rather, it is that of an expert who considers the problems and data pertaining to an individual and apprises him of various courses that he may take. The client is still free to act upon the advice or to reject it.

According to Mathewson's view,[27] counseling is a situation in which the counselor attempts to operate within the individual's field, which is composed of the client interacting with his environment—of external forces and internal urges toward action in one direction or another. The counselor, in this sense, acting somewhat as a liaison between the client and his world, may bring original thinking into the situation or use various techniques that will elicit productive thought from the client. Moreover, the counselor may give the client direct assistance in organizing his analysis of problems and gathering data on the various possible alternatives that promise solutions. Mathewson holds that counseling is essentially a "thinking with" process in which the dynamic interaction of two persons is an important element.

THE COUNSELOR'S SOCIAL AND INSTITUTIONAL STATUS. The institutional setting in which counseling is carried on is an important factor in the operation of the counseling process. Of the two people conferring, one is presumed to be a more mature person who has an acknowledged role in the community or school. Actually, the nature of this role varies considerably, and this variation is very likely to condition the counselor's effectiveness, for it alters his modes of action and may determine the techniques which he can profitably employ. The counselor who has the respect of people in the school or community as a responsible person, intensively trained and skilled and deeply and sincerely interested in the problems of individuals, will be the kind of person to whom youth will turn with confidence to receive genuine understanding and assistance.

In many ways, small and seemingly trivial conditions affect the role of the counselor; thus, if he is provided with an office, is listed in the directory, and is given other symbols of official recognition, he is in a stronger position than the counselor who has to confer with pupils in his classroom or in whatever hallway or vacant space is available, even though the latter may have equal training and responsibility. A position of respect is both achieved and attributed, and much can be done toward identifying the counselor's role by the formal set-up of the guidance services. For clients, one of the

[27] R. H. Mathewson, *Guidance Policy and Practice*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapters 3 and 4.

most promising means of achieving security is a relationship with a person who represents security. The counselor who works in a favorable setting within a school system has an important advantage when he consults with a student, for he is then more likely to be accepted by the young person as an informed, mature and experienced individual whose efforts to be helpful and reassuring have the support and respect of the entire school staff.

Counseling, as it has been developed in the past decade, has evolved a new kind of interpersonal relationship between an individual who has a problem and an individual who has a specific role in dealing with human relationships. The sharp distinction between the consultation of a counselor with his client and the consultation of a lawyer with his client lies in the element of *thinking with*; in the counseling relationship, the thinking of *both* persons is important, for both individuals represent data or access to data. The client is the best source of information pertaining to himself. It is he who has the problem (extreme shyness, or hostility to a teacher, or frustration in study, etc.) which he feels the need to overcome. It is he who has experienced the many activities of his life, who is experiencing now the home, school, or social pressures that have brought him to the counselor's office. The counselor, on the other hand—particularly the trained and experienced one—is skilled in dealing with human problems, has available a fund of data pertaining to the emotions and thought patterns of many individuals, and is familiar with the nature of the adjustive process.

In addition to the skill he has acquired in recognizing and helping to analyze a problem from the point of view of the individual concerned, the counselor can offer practical information regarding educational and occupational opportunities and effective study methods and use of time. Many counselors not only are consultants in the area of general adjustment but are skilled in such fields as remedial reading, remedial arithmetic, and remedial speech.

THE COUNSELOR'S ATTITUDE. The success of counseling as a process of "thinking together" depends primarily upon the attitude of the counselor. *Attitude is more important than technique and will in general pervade and control techniques and proceedings.*

Techniques are, however, important. Permissive counseling, for example, requires not only a permissive attitude on the part of the counselor but also appropriate techniques derived from this attitude: the counselor will permit the client to express himself freely, will refrain from judgment in some areas, and will accept the client's statements and feelings as part of his basic attitude of accepting his personality and individual characteristics.

In the first interviews of the counseling process, most counselors do considerable leading, but the degree of leading in subsequent interviews varies

with counselors. Because the counseling process is an interaction between two individuals, counselors tend to develop and to use a variety of verbal techniques which they adapt to the needs of each situation. Among the various aspects of his conduct of the interview which the counselor must weigh and determine are his mode of acceptance of the client's statements and the timing and content of interpretative statements. For example, in interpreting a client's statement, does the counselor give primary attention to the content of the statement or to the feelings the client attaches to that content? Some counselors emphasize the fact that their role is one of clarifying feelings, whereas others, believing that counseling operates on a more intellectual level, prefer to interpret feelings relatively less deeply and to focus more on content.

According to Robinson, there are four main aspects of the problem of basic orientation:[28]

(1) *Acceptance of the client*: To what extent and by what techniques is acceptance manifested?

(2) *Dealing with the core of the client's remarks*: Does the counselor discuss directly the content of the suggestion? Is the counselor sufficiently acute to apprehend the core, the major element, of the client's statement?

(3) *The division of responsibility*: Are there some stages of the counseling process in which the counselor takes responsibility and other stages in which the client takes responsibility? Is it the counselor's role to effect the transitions of responsibility? How does he effect these transitions without building up resentment and rejection of himself?

(4) *The degree of counselor leading*: A basic role of the counselor is that of initiating the client into the process of thinking through the problem. The way the counselor steers the interview affects the degree and manner in which the client participates in this process. The counselor's function in this initiation of the process is referred to as *leading*. Questions of the open-ended kind are usually most effective: "What kind of people do you like to work with on a job?" and "How do you like studying science compared to studying literature?" and "What have other boys done who have found themselves in this situation?" A frequently used question is: "How would your parents react if you dropped out of school?" This use of leading questions is not intended to imply that the counselor is trying to lead the pupil to a predetermined response; rather, he is trying to encourage him to think and to talk freely about his situation. The degree of leading required varies greatly with different clients and problems. The amount of counselor leading will generally decrease sharply as the counseling relationship pro-

[28] F. P. Robinson, *Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling*, Harper and Brothers, 1950.

gresses. It may be very high in the initial interview or in the first part of an interview and decrease sharply as the client perceives his role and feels secure in it.

The elements of the counseling process, though separable in discussion, are highly integrated in practice. As a result, these questions must all be answered in terms of the counselor's basic attitude and frame of reference and not as though techniques were distinct and independent elements.

An Eclectic View of Counseling

The view toward counseling expressed in this book is eclectic in the sense that it accepts neither a completely nondirective position nor so extremely directive a position as that of clinical counseling, discussed above. Eclecticism does not, however, necessarily involve confusion of assumptions and failure to differentiate among authorities; nor does it necessarily carry with it opportunism and rejection of any concept of counseling as a systematically structured situation. It does recognize, as a matter of commonsense, that the differences among individuals and their problems—the matters which cause them distress and bring them to the counselor's office—are so great as to preclude the possibility that any one structuring or any one set of techniques can effectively be applied to them all. People are complex, and society is complex; the interaction of the two results in an infinite variety of problems, so that even when individuals with the same type of problem come for help, so many variables are involved that no one set of techniques can be deemed the specific "cure" for that type of difficulty. It follows, of course, that no one set of techniques can be adequate for all problems or for all people. Whereas certain types of counseling call for a listening, permissive approach in which catharsis is the primary goal and the most effective outcome, other types of problems or clients require a rather careful approach to and analysis of the total situation.

The mere adopting of acceptable attitudes toward counseling does not, of course, create a successful counselor. The successful counselor must also have acquired skill in techniques and procedures and must have discovered through experience which ones he can use most effectively. The truly competent counselor must be sophisticated, skilled in a number of techniques, and possessed of a clear understanding of his own basic motivations and feelings as they pertain to the counseling situation. He must receive with warmth and sympathy the various individuals who come to him, structure a permissive situation for each of them, maintain the emotional

detachment and intellectual alertness required for him to accept and analyze the data pertaining to each problem, and be prepared to contribute his best thinking and his most sensitive intuition to the effort of "thinking with" the student toward a solution of his difficulty.

Summary of Basic Principles of Counseling

Among the assumptions underlying the view of counseling expressed in this book, the basic ones are that behavior is learned and therefore modifiable and that counseling is a learning situation, a self-finding process in which the client gains insights which enable him to meet changing situations and new problems more effectively. Perhaps no other aspect of counseling is as important as the counselor's concept of his role in the counseling situation and his attitude toward it. It may be helpful to restate the principles regarding attitude which have been developed in this chapter as basic to the counseling process.

ACCEPTANCE. All schools of thought in the guidance field agree that, in the counseling situation, the client must be accepted as a whole person. He must be received not as a statistic, not as the representative of a problem, but as a human being. It is neither the problem nor the counselor that is the most important element; it is the individual client. Acceptance further implies that the client will play a dynamic role in the counseling process— that he will have the crucial role in the resolution of the problem. Acceptance as the attitude pervading the counseling situation implies specific techniques which vary as they are used by the nondirective counselor and by the counselor who tends to be directive.

RESPECT FOR THE INDIVIDUAL. All schools of guidance attach importance to respect for the individual client. The counselor approaches each client with the implicit and complete acknowledgment that it is the client's life that is to be of primary concern, that he, the counselor, has not the power, and certainly not the right, to control, to determine, or to manipulate the life activities of another person. Final responsibility for changing and directing his life lies with the client himself; any other attitude would result in a weakening dependence that would destroy the long-range goals of counseling. The counselor strives, therefore, to make the client feel that he is a worthy individual, deserving of respect, who has the capacity for attaining the strengths and self-reliance he needs. A counselor's respect for the rights of his client may also be expressed in humility, one aspect of which is the counselor's self-searching alertness to his own shortcomings, especially

with regard to bias and errors of judgment, and his effort to compensate for them.

PERMISSIVENESS. All schools of thought would accept in a broad way the relative permissiveness of the counseling relationship. This quality of the relationship originates with the counselor but elicits from the client a sense of freedom in his behavior and feelings, and makes possible the cooperative readiness for counseling that is necessary for growth in insight and improvement of morale and attitudes. Counseling therefore must contain no element of coercion; the client must be left free to terminate the counseling process if and when he wishes. This element is essential to permissiveness in the counseling situation, and it should never be overlooked.

Permissiveness, like acceptance, is both an attitude and a technique. It is essential to the total atmosphere of the counseling office, to the process, and to the relationship between the parties concerned and is largely a function of the personality of the counselor. Although a degree of permissiveness may be acquired through a set of techniques, it is very doubtful that the kind of permissiveness represented by an "mm hm" response, by mere verbal acceptance, and by mere passivity will really benefit the client. The experience of counselors suggests that the keen insight of children and youth in sensing another's feelings, whether or not they are verbally expressed, will detect in pseudo-permissiveness a fundamental attitude toward the client as merely another item on the office records.

LEARNING. All schools of guidance thought accept to some degree the learning element in counseling. It is this writer's view that counseling is successful to the degree that it is a learning situation; the significance of the outcome is determined by the very process of counseling, by the growth of insight in clarifying the situation and formulating plans, and by the development of motivation for carrying out these plans. Counseling is a learning situation in that data and relationships are the topics under consideration, and it is a learning situation, moreover, in which the motivation is high because the focus of all the effort involved is the client himself. This concept of counseling is in contrast to the view which gives emphasis rather to prediction and the discovery of external solutions to the client's problems than to the possibilities for learning that inhere in the counseling process.

THINKING WITH RATHER THAN FOR THE CLIENT. The concept of a cooperative analysis of problems, a major element of the counseling approach presented in this book, is in direct contrast to the view that emphasizes thinking *about* or *for* the client with the goal of advising him on a course of action. The "thinking with" approach suggests that both the counselor

and the client are actively participating in the thinking process as it develops.

Thinking with a client involves, of course, thinking about data which can be brought into the situation only by the client himself: his feelings about and understanding of his present problems and past experiences, his interests, his concept of self and of his role in his environment. These feeling-tone data, however, do not constitute all the information required in the counseling process. Also needed are external data about the client: information about his previous life background and about his home life, health reports, and scores on psychological and other tests. The counselor makes judicious use of this information to aid the client in evaluating his present needs and abilities and his potentials.

AUTHORITY. The counselor's role, as expressed by his attitude and use of techniques, may be nondirective or directive or a compromise between these extremes.

Nondirective counselors (the Rogerian school of thought) conceive the role of the counselor to be that of a catalytic agent. The nondirective process of counseling is essentially one of aiding the client—primarily by providing a warm, permissive atmosphere in which he may talk—to release tensions and restrictions upon his own thinking and acting, and thus to achieve new insights into the pressures and relationships that affect his life. The outcome of nondirective counseling is ideally a greater independence of thinking and acting, from which results the achievement of a higher degree of self-realization.

At the other extreme of this dimension of counselor authority is the school known as directive counseling in which the counselor assumes the role of expert. He takes the responsibility for gathering and analyzing data on the client, examining the interrelationships among the many relevant factors in the client's environment and in his own aspirations and anxieties, and developing a synthesis of the key problems involved. By means of this synthesis, the counselor then decides on a course of treatment that will help the client solve his immediate problem.

The eclectic view of counseling takes a position between these two schools, advocating neither a wholly nondirective role nor a strongly directive one. Premising that individuals differ greatly and that no one set of techniques can be appropriately applied to all cases, the eclectic counselor holds that the permissive, listening approach to achieve catharsis for the client is most effective in some cases, whereas, in other cases, the counselor must make some decisions and give the minimum guidance necessary to help the client think through to a solution of his problem.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Depict the role of a counselor, as you see it, in diagrammatic form.

2. *a.* If you asked ten unselected students in your school what the counselor's function or role is, how do you think their replies would correlate with your own statement? List the replies you might get.

   b. Then get the actual opinions of ten students and check their answers with the list you prepared above.

3. One counseling department, instead of making tape recordings of interviews, developed the following chart to be checked by the counselor either during or following each interview:

Nature of Interview:
   Program planning (including changing)
   Vocational planning
   Personal problems
   Visiting
   Information giving
   Information seeking
   Discussion of school progress
   Tests

Initiative Taken by:
   Student
   Counselor

Most Talking Done by:
   Student
   Counselor

AND PROJECTS

Approximate Length of Interview:
—— minutes

Results:

Do you see values in such a sampling study? What disadvantages do you see in such a sampling study? What would you suggest as the next step?

4. List the most significant contributions of each of the following subject-matter fields to the guidance movement:

Tests and Measurements
Sociology
Religion
Anthropology

Labor Statistics
Psychology
Community Surveys
Psychiatry

5. Would you say that your characteristic approach to human relationships is more nearly directive or nondirective? With which of these roles in counseling do you more easily identify yourself? Would a tape recording of a counselor's interviews help him evaluate himself as a counselor? What values do you see in such recordings? What disadvantages? Do you feel that as a counselor your efficiency would be hampered if you knew that the interview was being recorded? Would your role be affected?

6. One counselor has said that he uses one basic structure for all interviews. What is your reaction to this method?

7. Can you, as a person, accept a nondirective, permissive role in your relations with other people? Analyze your relationship with a former student whom you recall vividly. Write out a statement of your role in the context of the principles of directive and nondirective counseling as described in this chapter.

8. Compare the role of the typical parent as you envision it with the role of the permissive counselor. Compare the role of the classroom teacher with that of the permissive counselor.

9. Set up in parallel columns an outline of the differences between and similarities of directive and nondirective counselors.

10. Are most counselors whom you know more effective in helping students to find solutions to immediate problems or in helping them to reorganize their personalities? With which of these roles do you identify? How do you account for this? Do you predict that your role would shift from time to time?

11. Circle the words that best describe your feelings as you read this chapter:

humility	anticipation	futility
sympathy	skepticism	discouragement
despair	interest	buoyancy
encouragement	confusion	hope
eagerness	boredom	interest
disbelief	enthusiasm	doubt
optimism	amazement	pleasure
curiosity	expectancy	concern
security	distrust	

12. You are a counselor. George, a ninth-grader, comes to see you—after you've sent for him because his teachers say that his disturbances are getting progressively worse and they want your help. George is in the college preparatory course because his parents want him to go to college. However, he is failing most of his courses; he does well only in physical education and wood shop. On all his achievement tests he scored low in reading and arithmetic. His teachers complain about his unacceptable behavior: he makes "smarty" remarks in class, wanders off into corners, and distracts other students by imitating the teachers. Although other students laugh at his antics and do not actively dislike him, neither do they seek him out. Structure a first interview with this student.

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Progressive Steps in School Counseling

STRUCTURE OF THE COUNSELING PROCESS

SUMMARY REPORTS

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

THE INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS and the behavior symptoms with which the counselor must usually deal recur so frequently that they tend to fall into two or three general categories. It is possible, therefore, to develop working guides for the initiation and continuation of the counseling process. This does not mean, however, that grave and complex problems come so rarely to the attention of the school counselor that he can ignore the possibility of their existence; on the contrary, he must be ever alert to the fact that any emotional symptom with which he is working may be actually indicative of a far more disturbing problem than appears on the surface. The case of a pupil who cheats in a written quiz may serve as an example: Is the problem simply that of dishonesty? What does it mean to say that a pupil is dishonest? That he is lazy? That he is compulsive? That he is desperate to get a good mark? That he does not know right from wrong? That he lacks conscience and values? That he is under such pressure that his moral values are overwhelmed? When the counselor does encounter a problem of personality which is so serious that coping with it will require more time and skill than he can bring to the task, he will refer the case to an outside

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agency and will follow through with the referral agency in developing a school program which will help the troubled individual to make a better adjustment.

Structure of the Counseling Process

The kinds of cases with which the school counselor usually deals are *educational and vocational planning, educational achievement, social adjustment, and minor personality problems.* These are relatively nonemotional problems, although, as any experienced counselor knows, there proves to be more emotional involvement in some cases than is at first apparent. Because most of the school counselor's cases, however, can be approached in a fairly systematic manner, this chapter will present a structure for the counseling process (based on the frame of reference outlined in the preceding chapter) which will be applicable to a large proportion of school counseling cases.

This structure can be described briefly in terms of its typical progression points, which are outlined below. It is recognized here that any counseling interview is a "flowing" process in which one step merges with the next. Nevertheless, each counseling interview has a purpose, and, if progress is to be made toward solution of the problem, the process as a whole must have a direction that both participants can sense. Indeed, this sense of order increases freedom and flexibility in the process. A summary of progressive steps in counseling, such as the following,[1] serves to augment the element of purposefulness in the process without destroying its flexibility:

(1) Establishing initial rapport.
(2) Structuring the counseling situation.
(3) Stating the problem.
(4) Counselor decisions on approach to be used.
(5) Making systematic steps in thinking through the problem.
(6) Gathering the data.
(7) Interpreting the data.
(8) Synthesizing possible courses of action.
(9) Planning.
(10) Making a summary statement.

[1] Frances P. Robinson, *Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling*, Harper and Brothers, 1950.

(11) Invitation for further consultation.

(12) Follow-up.

Establishing Initial Rapport

The first step in any meeting between two people is a salutation, which marks the beginning of the process of becoming acquainted. The lead is usually taken by the counselor, who greets the client when he comes to the door. If the two people do not actually know each other, names are exchanged: "Good morning! I'm Mr. Smith. I don't believe I know your name." Of course, if he knows it, the counselor will use the pupil's name in greeting him. The client will give the counselor his name if the counselor does not know him, and it is a good idea to shake hands and spend a minute or two in casual conversation. The counselor, taking the initiative, may comment (in a school situation) on some recent school activity. Some knowledge of the pupil's background and interests will greatly facilitate finding a topic about which he is willing and able to talk.

This first contact is simple but important, for these first two or three minutes establish attitudes which make it possible for two people to talk and think together. Because counseling is intended to be a helping process for the client, an attitude of warmth and acceptance must be present and must be *felt* in the first moments of the first interview; otherwise, whatever words are used will fail to achieve their purpose. Facial expression, bodily movement, tonal warmth—all are more important than the actual words employed. A merely neutral tone will not succeed at this moment: unless the counselor is able to be friendly and interested from the very beginning of the relationship, the client may actually feel a sense of rejection.

Structuring the Counseling Situation

Within the framework of the counseling tenets expressed in this book, the initiation of the counseling interview is the responsibility of the counselor. He sets the stage—in the way in which he meets the client when he enters, in the way in which he explains that it is his role to listen to the student and to think with him about his problem.[2]

If the client immediately tells the counselor what is troubling him, the counselor—regardless of what the problem is—gives him a brief statement of the nature of the counseling process. Essentially, this statement should inform the client that counseling is a thinking-together process and that

[2] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 2.

the counselor will be glad to give his full attention and thinking to the student's problem. He should go on to explain that by examining the problem in a systematic way, by looking up further information that will help in understanding possible choice, and by clarifying data which are confused in the pupil's mind, pupil and counselor together will be able to see more clearly what steps can be taken. The final responsibility for choice, the counselor emphasizes, rests with the pupil, whose continued participation is voluntary. He assures the client that, if the latter wishes, everything said between them will be treated as confidential.

Often, of course, the client will not immediately state why he has come. In such cases, to begin the interview, the counselor—in language appropriate to the place and to the maturity of the client—makes some such statement as the following:

"Something is bothering you and you'd like to talk it over with me. I'll be very glad to listen and to think with you. As I'm sure you know, you're the only person who can make decisions about your life. We've learned from a lot of experience that if a person thinks through his own problem and comes to his own answer, he has a better solution than if someone else tells him what to do. However, I'm here to help you in any way I can.

"We might begin with your telling me what your problem is and what you think are the things that you can do under the circumstances.

"Maybe we'll be able to go on from there. Maybe it'll help to look at your previous school record. Maybe it'll be important to give you some additional psychological tests. We want to understand your situation as clearly as possible."

This process of initiation is called *structuring*. Its purpose is to give the client a working concept of his role and the counselor's role in this counseling process. The initial structuring is not necessarily permanent.[3] The counselor may find it helpful to restructure the situation from time to time, particularly if the counseling is carried on over an extended period.

Stating the Problem

After his structuring statement, the counselor should request the client to state his problem, or, if he has already stated it, to explain it more fully. This request should be simple and usually direct. Whatever the words he uses, the counselor should clearly indicate that he is interested and prepared to devote his time and his thinking to the client's difficulties. The request for information is a simple question—for example, "Now what was it

[3] E. L. Shostrom and L. M. Brammer, *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952, Chapter 6.

you wanted to talk to me about today?" Or, if the student has been referred by someone else, the counselor might say: "Now what is the problem that's been concerning you and Miss Heeney? I'm sure I don't have the whole story." Or, "What is the situation that you and your mother have been discussing?" To a client with whom the counselor is acquainted or has had previous contacts, he might say, "What's on your mind today?" When preparatory information is lacking or indefinite, perhaps the most clear-cut and effective question is, "What is the problem you wanted to talk to me about?"

During the first part of the interview, the counselor will be primarily a listener with the aim of achieving an initial understanding of two factors: the *content*, or the intellectual element, of the student's problem and the degree of the client's *emotional involvement* not only in this problem but in his over-all adjustment. The counselor may occasionally question the client to elicit further details. He should be guided throughout the first interview by the primary objective of clarifying for both people concerned the problem that is troubling the client.

The first interview must establish a clearly permissive atmosphere in which the counselor is nonjudgmental in his relations with the student. It should be noted, however, that following this interview, or even during it, the school counselor must make some decisions—in certain areas, he must be judgmental. The apparent contradiction involved in these statements may be resolved by discussing the following questions: On what aspects of the situation is the counselor genuinely nonjudgmental? On what aspects *must* he make progressive decisions? The next step in the counseling structure concerns these questions.

Counselor Decisions on Approach to Be Used

Basing his judgment on both the content and the feeling tone of the preliminary interview, the counselor must tentatively determine whether the client's problem situation falls within his sphere of competence and responsibility. It may be simply a matter of giving the pupil assistance in deciding on educational or vocational goals or in improving his study habits; on the other hand, the immediate problem may reflect deep emotional disturbance—troubled relations with parents, lack of confidence in himself, or frustration arising from unreal aspirations. On the counselor's judgment of the nature of the problem involved will depend his decision on what techniques to employ in the continuing counseling process.[4]

[4] H. P. Pepinsky and Pauline N. Pepinsky, *Counseling Theory and Practice*, Ronald Press, 1954, Chapter 7.

If the problem is primarily a practical one requiring an intellectual thinking through, the counselor's role will be that of assisting the pupil to gather and analyze the data and test a number of hypothesized conclusions. If, however, the problem lies essentially in the area of emotional adjustment or mental health, the counselor must decide whether to continue to deal with the case and, if he does, what approach to adopt, what role to play, and what relationships to establish.

Actually, of course, intellectual and emotional factors are not subject to simple, sharp differentiation. It is probably advisable for most school counselors to limit their work with deep emotional problems to listening to the client with the goal of helping him achieve emotional release and find friendly support. If, in the counselor's judgment, listening therapy is inadequate or possibly even injurious, it is his duty to make a referral and prepare the client to accept help from someone with more highly specialized training. It has been the writer's experience, however, that many counselors choose the first course—that of providing the student with an opportunity to discuss his problem further and to explore in a permissive and nonjudgmental atmosphere the various pressures and relationships to which he is subject. Experience indicates, in other words, that for most students who come to the counselor, one or a series of catharsis sessions are beneficial and that there is little danger that the counselor will do any injury to the client by offering such preliminary treatment, even in cases which he must later refer to another agency. In many cases, all the student needs is a sympathetic hearing about relatively minor anxieties which he has been repressing.

Because most students are normal and most cases that come to the school counselor are planning situations, our attention will be devoted largely to outlining the subsequent steps in dealing with this typical counseling activity.

Making Systematic Steps in Thinking Through a Problem

The counselor's judgment that a student's problem is primarily one of planning (planning an educational program, establishing goals, planning participation in some activity) is likely to be reached near the end of the first interview. His next step is to structure the situation to the client according to the insight he has gained.

Structuring may suggest a logical sequence in thinking through a problem, and the counselor must present this sequence to the client. He may do this according to the following pattern: "Making a decision on these matters is a serious undertaking. It'll be important for us to gather informa-

tion and examine it carefully. Now, what evidence do you think we need for thinking through a personal problem like this?"

(He considers the client's response, then continues:)

"That's right. We'll want to know as much about you as we can. We'll want to know your interests, how you feel about various things, what your abilities are, and what your achievements are. Anything else?"

(The counselor listens to the client's response; then he summarizes:)

"We'll want to learn as much as possible about your potential abilities or aptitudes. We want to consider a whole set of data concerning you: your past experience, what you are now, and what you want to become. But that's not all. We need another set of data—information about the opportunities open to you. What about that?"

(The counselor pauses. After the client responds, the counselor continues:)

"Very well. Right now, certain opportunities look good to you and seem available. We'll want to know what training or preparation is required for the choices you make and what is likely to happen in the course of time as you follow the plan you decide upon."

This example of how a counselor may guide a client through the structuring process is, of course, too long and too technical to be used with either a young client or one who is confused or disturbed; it is intended to indicate the content rather than the precise wording to be used. The ideas can be communicated in a variety of ways; the content can be broken into parts. In some cases, the counselor may pose a series of what interviewers call "open-ended questions." He may, for example, ask: "What aptitudes do you think a person has to have to become a ——?" If such questions do not elicit spontaneous replies, it may be helpful for the counselor to use a projective technique: he may suggest that the client think about someone else facing a problem similar to his own and then ask, "What do you think this other person ought to do in these circumstances?" This degree of "remove" from the client's personal situation tends to focus his attention upon the problem-solving process which is being initiated and helps to lift the burden of self-involvement which makes thinking difficult. The counselor may say, "Now, John, just imagine for a minute that your friend Dan has the same problem to face.How do you think he ought to go about solving it? What kinds of facts should he have to work with before he makes any decisions?"

In other cases, instead of such a statement as is suggested above, the counselor may use a direct approach. He may say, "We can see now that this problem concerns not only you but the school and a lot of other people.

We'll need to gather data about you and about all the other factors involved and think about the whole situation. What are some of the facts about yourself that you think need further examination?" As the client mentions a few items, they can be repeated and perhaps somewhat amplified and written down. Through such a process, client and counselor together can build up a list of factors in the client's situation on which more data are required, and these factors can then be related to the elements in the client's personality, home, school, and community that must be considered.[5]

Structuring must, of course, be couched in language which the client understands, for its purpose is to give him a reason for the examination of his record and to prepare him for the necessity for further tests and consultations. It is important, too, for the client to understand that this fact-finding process is a cooperative effort, that the counselor will work with him to collect the data which will describe him and to list his opportunities, and that they will examine all this information together.

The client must understand, too, that, although the counselor will assist him in thinking through the implications of the information, the final decision is his own. The fact that the final responsibility for decision rests with the client does not mean that the counselor will withhold aid if the client actually requests his judgment on the consequences of certain alternatives he might choose; rather, it means that the client must recognize throughout the counseling process his own responsible role in arriving at conclusions and plans.

Gathering the Data

The counselor may appropriately close the interview with the request that the student prepare a brief written inventory of himself, including such information as his health record, his family background, his education, his achievement in all his school subjects and in the nonclassroom areas of the school program, the interests he has pursued from time to time, and his own concept of his greatest personal assets and his areas of weakness. The counselor may say that he, in turn, will collect and examine various of the school records pertaining to the client and have them available to be studied at the second interview.[6]

This whole procedure may, of course, be telescoped into a single interview. The counselor may take the student's record from his files and lay it on the desk between them so that they may together examine the student's

[5] C. E. Erickson, *The Counseling Interview*, Prentice-Hall, 1950, Chapter 5.
[6] Jane Warters, *Techniques of Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954, Chapter 1.

academic achievements and test results of the past school year. Essentially, this data-gathering process is an attempt to see the student as an individual as clearly as possible.

The question of administering additional tests requires further comment. This writer believes that the decision regarding testing is one in which the client has responsibility, since, obviously, tests administered to a client who does not wish to submit to testing will impair the counseling process and produce no useful data. The counselor will find it advantageous to have available a special form indicating the kinds of tests that may be given, what each measures, and how the test data fit into the picture of the other information about the individual.[7] Filling in such a form cooperatively is quite a different matter from the one-sided action of a counselor deciding on a testing sequence for the client, or from an arbitrary program that insists upon a routine of tests for all clients regardless of their problems. It is also quite different from the procedures of extremely nondirective counselors, who hold that the testing situation is wholly a client responsibility—that the client must decide not only whether to take tests but also what tests he will take.

The procedure proposed here is based on the premise that most laymen do not have sufficient knowledge about tests and testing to make intelligent decisions on whether or not to take tests or how to select the ones that will provide the information needed. This procedure is based also on the assumption that the counselor is well informed in the area of psychological testing, that he is willing to use test instruments permissively, and that he assumes the responsibility for clarifying the reasons for their use. In other words, the decision to take tests is the client's; but, once the decision has been made, the leading role reverts to the counselor, who must then discuss briefly the field of testing and the areas in which he thinks more knowledge of the client is needed. The responsibility of determining these areas, the selection of testing instruments, the planning of a sequence, and the arrangement of standardized procedures for test administration all fall to the counselor.

The accumulated data about the individual should provide information regarding his home background, his health, his school history—with especial reference to abilities indicated in classroom and in extracurricular activities —his manifest and inventoried interest patterns, and his feelings, briefly but meaningfully stated, about his individual problems. In most cases, this process will require considerable time, possibly a full preliminary interview of thirty minutes to an hour plus a testing period of two to six hours, and possibly several sessions, depending upon the number of tests administered.

[7] E. L. Shostrom and L. M. Brammer, *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Chapter 7.

The next steps in the counseling process are the interpretation of these data and the preparation of a synthesis of possible courses of action.

Interpreting the Data

The interpretation interview can be characterized as a conference at which counselor and client are seated at a table upon which the accumulated information materials are spread out. Their purpose is to achieve an understanding of these materials. Certain materials can be interpreted only by the client: the degree to which his school achievement represents a good or poor effort, the significance of the facts about his family background, his feelings about his relationships with the people around him. Other elements of the data, such as the school record, for example, require interpretation by the counselor, who has a great deal of information regarding the significance of different patterns of achievement, the meaning and promise that are implied in school record of interests, abilities, and development. The counselor is also an expert in the interpretation of test data.

Communicating to the client an understanding of the test findings is a difficult task which requires ingenuity; these test interpretations must be planned by the counselor. Experience indicates that a test score can usually be communicated to a student graphically. One helpful method is to sketch, as the client watches, rough bar graphs indicating the student's performance on a test in relation to that of a carefully and explicitly delimited group of his peers. During the sketching, the tests themselves may be on the desk, available for reference and for further clarification of the kinds of ability represented by the items portrayed. The physical presence of the tests and of the student's work sheets on the tests provides a setting in which both counselor and client can judge whether the scores represent the student's optimum performance or whether failure to understand or emotional reactions at the time the tests were taken have affected the validity of the results.[8]

The data to be considered in the interpretation interview may be classified under the following major headings:

(1) The *pattern of interests* of the client, including not only immediately stated interests but also the trend of interests which has been developing.

(2) The *abilities* of the client, as measured by achievements in and out of school and by tests.

(3) The *aptitudes* of the client, as indicated both by the achievement record and by the test pattern or test profile which has been developed.

After this objective observation of all of the evidence, the client should

[8] Pepinsky and Pepinsky, *op. cit.*, Chapters 9 and 10.

be given the opportunity to indicate his own reaction to the picture which the data present. The counselor, as he interprets a test score, may ask the client how this performance compares with what the client thinks, or has thought, of himself. After client and counselor have made the over-all interpretation, the counselor may, either at that time or subsequently, ask the client to state his reaction to the whole picture. Sometimes it is fruitful for the counselor to ask the client to restate in his own words what he feels to be of most meaning and usefulness to him in the whole pattern of data which has been examined.

The interpretation of the evidence about the individual leads naturally and within the same interview to the synthesis of the client's wishes for his future and to the question of whether or not his hopes can be satisfied in terms of opportunity.

Synthesizing Possible Courses of Action

To achieve a synthesis, the orientation of the interview may shift from consideration of the client to consideration of the environment, especially those aspects of it in which the client's interests lie.[9] If, for example, the client is a high-school student whose interest is in studying medicine, the focus of the interview shifts to a consideration of the facts about preparation for the field of medicine. A college catalogue or a recent brochure on the profession may be drawn from the files and consulted for information regarding opportunity, the extent and nature of professional education, and the required courses of study in high school and early college. Such environmental data must then be considered in relation to the picture of the client as presented by the personal data, in order to determine whether he has promise of fulfilling the requirements of the profession.

In some cases the student will realize by himself that the kinds of preparation required by a profession he is considering are not of interest to him or that his past achievement indicates that he would probably not perform well in it. The counselor should then turn the discussion to other possible professional choices, perhaps related to the area of the first choice. The need to find alternative choices frequently enters into counseling with youths who are considering engineering, for example, but whose interests and abilities may demonstrate quite clearly that their aptitudes do not meet the requirements of the engineering profession. Once a client recognizes the discrepancy between the requirements of the profession and his abilities, the counselor may ask, "What other occupations are related to your interests but

[9] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 9.

do not require so much mathematical ability as engineering does?" Counselor and client then explore the matter, reviewing their findings and investigating literature about other occupations. Their aim is to compile data on the various courses of action which are open to the student and so to find vocational opportunities which meet his interests as well as his abilities.

In this phase of the counseling process the counselor must take a leading role to ensure consideration by the client of the whole gamut of vocational possibilities open to him. It may be necessary to list these possible answers to his need, writing each down as the student or counselor considers them. Counselor and client together examine the requirements of each of the listed occupations and analyze each occupation in order to hypothesize the successive events and consequences of choosing it.[10]

Thus, in the case of the student whose expressed and inventoried interests are in the field of engineering, the counselor might point out that people drawn to mechanical and scientific work find employment at many different levels of creative and precise mechanical activity. For example, the service-station attendant must be interested in and widely informed about machines —particularly automobiles. At the next level is the automobile or airplane mechanic, who must have an intensive technical knowledge and a considerable body of skills which require a higher level of training. At still higher levels are the several fields of engineering, for all of which the aspirant must have college preparation and a variety of creative abilities. The mechanical field thus offers a wide range of educational and occupational opportunities. Such a range of aptitudes, skills, and training is found in many fields, and the counselor should require the client to investigate the whole range—to consider carefully all the possibilities open to him.

This process, which involves two steps—interpreting the data and synthesizing the possible courses of action—usually occurs within a single interview.

Planning

In the interview itself there is not, of course, a sharp differentiation between interpreting the data about a client and relating their implications to the various opportunities and requirements in his field of interest. Although the aim of this session should be that the client establish at least tentative goals, counselor and client may recognize that, at that time and on the basis of evidence then available, no concrete goals can be set and further planning is required. The counselor should be flexible enough not to insist that each interview result in setting goals or planning programs with any degree of

[10] Shostrom and Brammer, *op. cit.*, Chapter 8.

finality. Nevertheless, at most school levels, a tentative, progressive goal can usually be established and a general direction indicated. For example, the student who, although undecided about a vocational goal, is fairly firm in his resolution to enter college, may make the decision that he will plan his high-school academic program to meet college entrance requirements. This would be a wholly adequate goal for a high-school counseling situation.

The admission of the tentative nature of student planning is not intended to condone failure of the counseling process to achieve any plan of action. Counseling is initiated because of a problem, or problems, felt by the client, and its termination must be the development of a plan of action, however tentative, which gives promise of meeting the posed problem. Thus, the outcome of counseling for a girl who has had difficulties in her social adjustment, in having dates and in participating in the school social life, should be a plan of action that promises some amelioration of the difficulty. The plan might involve her acceptance of some elements of the situation which cannot be changed (for example, if she is on crutches as the result of an auto accident, she cannot hope to attend dances) and at the same time project arrangements for her to join suitable social groups—the school choir, a language club, the Y.W.C.A.—which will open up new social opportunities for her. The plan might also suggest other ameliorative efforts for her, such as acquiring greater conversational skill or improving her appearance and habits of dress.[11] If the counseling process does not terminate in some realistic plan of action, the client may feel even more disturbed and frustrated than he did before counseling.

It is in planning outlets for student interests and needs that the counseling program becomes clearly involved in the whole school guidance program of adapting school offerings to the needs of the students. The counselor may find that he must assume responsibility for initiating and promoting curriculum or administrative developments that will provide opportunities for students to find satisfying solutions to some of their problems of growth.

Making a Summary Statement

The conclusion of the final interview should be a summary by both counselor and client. The counselor may ask, "What, then, have we decided?" The client states his interpretation of the conclusions reached—for example: "At the present time I'm planning to study electrical engineering, and I'll set up my high-school program to fill the requirements for a college of engineering. Next year I'll take these subjects. . . ." The counselor may help the client by offering a restatement of his summary which embodies the client's

[11] Pepinsky and Pepinsky, *op. cit.*, Chapter 9.

ideas but rephrases them in such a way that both are entirely clear on the progress of problem-solving to date.

This summary statment of the results of counseling has two purposes; the first purpose is to express the face-to-face relationship, the thinking-together, of counselor and client, and the second is to provide a record. Even when a whole series of interviews and other contacts have been involved, the counselor should prepare a summary statement for filing and for possible subsequent use with the client.

The summary statement is of primary importance in implementing the learning process which is the goal of counseling. Since counseling frequently extends over a considerable period of time and considers many facts and feelings, a final oral summing up by the counselor helps the client to integrate the many facets of the experience into his understanding of his self-structure and of environmental relationships. It should give him the satisfied feeling expressed in "I've thought this problem through pretty carefully, and this is what I'm going to do."

A written summary statement, separate from the final summing up in the last interview, is important as a record, both to the counselor and to the school. Two examples of such reports will be found on pages 171-180. The written summary statement gives the counselor a significant point of reference and a sense of direction for further work with the student and a basis for evaluating the effectiveness of his counseling. The summary usually takes the form of a brief resumé of all the activities of the counseling process: the interviews, the test record, the decisions and plans made. This write-up should be prepared as soon as possible after the final interview with the client. In any consideration of the relative importance of these two types of summaries, however, the oral summation with the client should be given priority.

Invitation for Further Consultation

Although the success of a course of counseling can be measured largely by the client's sense of achievement and resolution, the importance of flexibility and further growth demands that the client not consider his concluding plans to be absolutely final. Every counseling interview with a student should end with an invitation to return for further consultation and an assurance that the counselor's wish is to help the student with any new problems and any change in his plans that he may want to bring to the counselor's attention. For example, the high-school freshman who has tentatively established the goal of entering the medical profession and has made plans for meeting college-entrance requirements should be encouraged to call

upon and consult with his counselor if his interests should change. The boy who has made plans to take a radio course and has become a member of the radio club may find that these activities do not really satisfy him; he will then wish to consider other possible opportunities, and he should be made to feel welcome to discuss changes with the counselor.

The interview should always be in a special sense "open-ended." Provision for continuing or reopening the counseling process is a necessary recognition of the constant change in the desires and needs of people—particularly young people—and in the situations and opportunities with which they are faced. It is of prime importance that both counselor and client terminate the immediate counseling process with the attitude that progress has been made but that further growth may bring new problems or a revival in new form of old problems and that the assistance which counseling can give is a continuing resource.

Follow-up

The follow-up process for the school counselor involves an occasional investigation of the subsequent record of students whom he has counseled.[12] The follow-up has a professional value for the counselor and is reassuring and helpful to the student. Although within the limits of their level of maturity student clients want and need freedom to make their own choices, outside those limits they are not wholly independent and self-directive but need help from adults. It is part of the counselor's role to observe periodically the activities of a student client, to be prepared to give him the encouragement he may need to complete a task, and occasionally to remind him of steps that were planned but may have been neglected. This follow-up service to the student is also a service to the counselor. Because no guidance worker can know how effective his counseling has been until he has studied its outcomes, a systematic program of follow-up is a research aspect of counseling necessary for self-evaluation and professional development. The procedural and technical details of follow-up are described in Chapter 16, which deals with the evaluation of counseling.

Summary Reports

The following are two widely different examples of summary reports. Both were prepared by school counselors.

[12] Warters, *op. cit.*, Chapter 10.

SAM ADAMS: SUMMARY REPORT

Client: Sam Adams, Senior, Barton High School. Born, 26 October 1936.
Counselor: Daniel H. Truscott

First Interview, 18 May 1954

Sam presents a pleasing personality and seems straightforward in his responses. He is the youngest of four boys; two brothers are foster brothers, one in the Air Force, the other in the Navy; neither went to college after high school. Father did not graduate from high school. Mother had two years in university. Sam is proud of parents' achievement—operation of a profitable grocery store which was sold one year ago; parents now operate a rest home. Sam stated that home life is very happy; neither parent exercised harsh measures of discipline. He has worked in many jobs after school and during summers.

School activities: A Cappella Choir. Does not care for athletics. Has been avid reader of scientific and historical fiction for many years.

Aspirations: Earliest were for law and music. Took piano lessons for two years. Has no further interest in law. Present interests are in music and entrance to either U.S. Naval Academy or U.S. Military Academy. He plans to take next examinations for these appointments in Spring of 1955. Has no alternative plans at present. He has submitted application for admission to Highland State and to San Carlos Junior College.

Best liked subjects: A Cappella Choir, English, and History.

Least liked subjects: States there are none which he really disliked, other than physical education. This dislike for P.E. is borne out by barely passing marks in this subject.

TEST DATA

I.Q. Tests

Grade III Kuhlman-Anderson	124
Grade IV Kuhlman-Anderson	139

Achievement Tests

Grades III-VIII inclusive. Stanford Achievement and American School Achievement Tests showed an average of plus 1.9 years in Age Equivalent and plus 2.1 in Grade Equivalent.

Iowa Tests of Educational Development, Percentiles, October 1953

Social Studies	100
Natural Science	92
Quantitative Thinking	78
Reading: Social Studies	89
Reading: Natural Science	80

Reading: Literature	90
General Vocabulary	99
Composite Score (weighted)	96

Kuder Preference Test, November 1950

Mechanical	30	Artistic	66
Computational	30	Literary	60
Scientific	30	Musical	85
Persuasive	50	Social Science	55
Clerical	8		

SCHOOL GRADES

*Freshman**		*Sophomore*	
English	C	Auto Shop	C
General Science	C+	English	C
Orientation	C	Geometry	D
Algebra	C	A Cappella Choir	A—
P.E.	Inc.	P.E.	D
		U.S. History	B

Junior		*Senior*	
Chemistry	C	Physics	C
English	C+	Public Speaking	B—
A Cappella Choir	A—	Family Living	B
U.S. History	B+	A Cappella Choir	A
P.E.	D	English	B
		P.E.	B

* Sam was out of school for about 100 days during his freshman year by reason of injuries and illness. He states that he picked up bad study habits during this year.

TESTS GIVEN BY COUNSELOR

D.A.T.

Percentiles		*Wechsler-Bellevue*	
Mechanical Reasoning	90	I.Q. Verbal Scale	133
Abstract Reasoning	79	I.Q. Performance Scale	122
Verbal Reasoning	83	I.Q. Full Scale	131
Numerical Ability	75		

Strong Vocational Interest Blank

Army Officer	A	Musician	A
Production Engineer	B+	Senior C.P.A.	A
Printer	B+	Junior Accountant	B+
Policeman	B+	Office Worker	B+

Aviator	B+	Dentist	C
Personnel Manager	A	Veterinarian	C
Public Administrator	A	Physicist	C
Vocational Counselor	B+	Mathematician	C
Social Science Teacher	B+		

SECOND INTERVIEW, 20 MAY 1954

Administered D.A.T. Verbal Reasoning and Mechanical Ability. Further discussion elicited from Sam the fact that he wanted to go to college to prepare for examinations for West Point and Annapolis and take minor courses in music and art.

THIRD INTERVIEW, 21 MAY 1954

Administered D.A.T. Abstract Reasoning and Mechanical Reasoning. Little time was available for interviewing.

FOURTH INTERVIEW, 24 MAY 1954

Administered Wechsler-Bellevue Test.

FIFTH INTERVIEW, 26 MAY 1954

Interviewed Sam and parents at home. Both parents are much interested in Sam's future plans; however, they were insistent that Sam make the decision. They were interested but would not urge him. Home life seemed most congenial; rapport between Sam and parents is excellent. Discussed results of tests given by counselor and school. Sam was surprised by results. He stated that he did not remember ever being given results of tests before. Parents agreed that Sam's study habits could be improved.

SIXTH INTERVIEW, 3 JUNE 1954

Discussed results of Wechsler-Bellevue Test. Sam was agreeably surprised at the high percentile ranking. Stated that since last interview he had decided that he would:

1. Enter Highland State College to take undergraduate courses which would prepare him for examinations for West Point or Annapolis. These courses will follow in general those required of all undergraduates with accent on mathematics and science.
2. If he does not get into West Point or Annapolis, he will continue courses leading to aeronautical engineering.

Sam seemed more secure in his own mind as to his future plans. He stated that he had more confidence in the future and that the interviews had helped him to reach his decision.

The counselor is of the opinion that Sam can finish college work if he will apply himself. He believes that Sam understands himself better, and

with renewed confidence he will apply himself more assiduously to the task ahead.

<div align="center">HAROLD ARMS: SUMMARY REPORT</div>

Counselee: Harold Arms   *Nationality:* American
Sex: M   *Religion:*
Date of birth: June 2, 1936   *Place:* Westhampton
Age: 18   *School:* Alton High
Race: White   *Year:* Senior

<div align="center">TEST DATA</div>

Diagnostic Reading Test Percentiles

Vocabulary	62
Comprehension	58

<div align="center">

Differential Aptitude Test Percentiles

Verbal	50	77½ (retest)
Numerical	40	
Abstract	55	
Space	41	
Mechanical	19	46 (retest)
Clerical	67	
Spelling	75	
Sentences	87	

</div>

<div align="center">

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental-Ability Test

Percentile	66.5
I.Q.	107

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<div align="center">

Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test

I.Q. 127   Classification: superior adult

</div>

<div align="center">

Strong Vocational Interest Test for Men

</div>

A Ratings	B+ Ratings	B— Ratings
Aviator	Physician	Architect
Carpenter	Chemist	Dentist
Engineer	Math.-Science teacher	Veterinarian
Farmer		Production
Forest service		manager
Musician		Army officer
Printer		Real-estate
Senior C.P.A.		salesman

SCHOLASTIC RECORD

1950-1951			1951-1952	
English	B, B		English II	D, D
Social Science	C, D		Latin II	D
Health	B, C		Geometry	C, C
Algebra	F, A		Gen. Met. I	B, B
Band	B, C		Adv. Gen. Met.	B
Latin	B, D		P.E.	B, C
Algebra II	C			

1952-1953			1953-1954	
English III	C, C		English IV	C
U.S. History	C, B		Senior Problems	C
Physics	C, C		Biology	C
Auto Shop I	B, C		Typing I	B
Gen. Met.	B, B		Latin	C
			P.E.	B

SUMMARY

Harold Arms is eighteen years old, a senior at Alton High School in Westhampton. He has an Otis I.Q. of 107 and a Stanford-Binet I.Q. of 127, classifiable as superior adult.

Extracurricular Activities

Harold was the sports captain in the junior high school. He was a Red Cross representative of his class, and also the vice-president in the junior high.

His out-of-school activities are fishing, hiking, and swimming. He is very much interested in swimming and plans to teach it to small kids at the Y.M.C.A. this summer. He is an active member of the Y.M.C.A. in Westhampton and was recently given his teaching certificate by this organization.

Home Factors

His parents are living together and both went as far as second year college in education. He has one brother who goes to Capuchino High and a sister in San Mateo Junior College. While he thinks his mother understands him, he says, there are many times when they have arguments over things. His mother goes to the Christian Church and wants the whole family to attend as she does. Harold, however, does not care much for it and did not want to attend the services. He had arguments with his mother, but finally he won. Now, he says, he doesn't have to go to church but he does not know why he gets mad when his mother fails to attend the services.

He thinks that if his mother believes in it then she should be regular in her attendance.

Counselee's Reaction

Harold wants to go to college but not immediately after graduation from high school. He wants to work first or perhaps join the armed forces and earn some money. Because of his low grades he cannot be choosy about colleges; his best bet is a public junior college. He says he is not sure of what he wants, but when all the other possible occupations were presented, it appeared that he was not interested in anything but engineering. He wants a job that calls for going places; he says he would not like being tied to one place.

Impressions and Observations

Although Harold says that he does not know what he wants and is not decided, his mind is set. It is very evident that if he goes to college at all, he wants to take up engineering (either civil or mechanical) and no other kind of vocation. We went through the list of vocations for which he scored highest in the Strong Vocational Interest for Men. First we considered occupations with A ratings, then those with B-plus ratings, and lastly those with B-minus ratings. He voiced his objections and dislike for each one. It appeared that Harold needed and wanted some assurance about his ability to tackle engineering. He thinks that his knowledge of mathematics is not good enough to meet the requirements of the course. He did not like geometry and had difficulty understanding the latter part of the course. The technique of mastering math subjects was explained to him. He understood his weakness. He has never been consistent in the preparation of his daily assignments, so that he missed many lessons. Yes, he knew that mastery of previous assignments is essential, but he just didn't care.

It was suggested that since he has the ability he might do some studying on his own and review his high-school work before he enters college.

Conclusions Reached

Harold is definite that no other vocations appeal to him except those in the field of engineering. After graduation from the high school, he will look for a job to earn money and save since he will be totally self-supporting when he enters college. He will also do some studying and try hard for the College Board examinations. He has heard about the different kinds of training available at the California Polytechnic College, and that is where he plans to study in a year or so.

Remarks

Harold presents a good example of the "under-achiever." With a Binet I.Q. of 127, classified as superior adult, he could easily have made good

grades in the high school. He did not have the proper motivation to benefit from his high-school work. He found most of his courses as well as his teachers boring. When his courses and his teachers interested him, he made good grades.

It appears that Harold has a more mature outlook on life than most boys of his age, which probably explains his being bored most of the time. As evidence of this, he has his own philosophy about religion and he expects others to have theirs and to follow them. He has insight into his own inadequacies and has made intelligent choices and decisions. He shows responsibility and dependability. In connection with his teaching swimming this summer, he mentioned the fact that some of the diving stunts taught to young kids are difficult and even dangerous. Harold has been trained and has obtained his teaching certificate in swimming.

With proper incentive and guidance, Harold can be successful in his chosen field. He needs an understanding counselor to plan with him as soon as he enters college.

INTERVIEW REPORT

First Interview, May 1, 1954

The first interview with Harold was a fact-finding getting-acquainted interview. After introducing myself, we fell to talking about the Philippines. He seemed interested right away. He knows the names of many places in the islands which played important parts in the Second World War. Rapport was easily established because of this, and when I mentioned the purpose of the interview, he indicated eagerness and willingness to answer my questions. I prepared a student-record blank and asked Harold to fill it out.

Among the data found in this blank are the following:

His parents are living together.

Highest education reached by both parents: second year college.

School subjects liked best: Physical Education, Band, Auto Shop, Metal Shop, U.S. History. Liked them best because they were more interesting than the others.

School subjects liked least: Senior Problems, English, Latin. Reason: They are boring.

Other schools attended: Alton Grammar School, 1943-1946; Los Benitos, 1946-1949; El Capitan Junior High, 1949-1952.

Offices held in extracurricular activities: sports captain, junior high; Red Cross representative; vice-president of class, junior high.

Individual and group activities indicated: fishing, hiking, swimming, active member of the Y.M.C.A.

Magazines read regularly: World and News, Life, Post, Collier's, Popular Science, Reader's Digest, Coronet.

Types of books that interest him: intrigue and sea stories.

How parents feel about future vocation: Very anxious for him to go to college and to do what he thinks best.

Financial support if he continues education: Will be totally self-supporting.

Future vocational plans: No definite plans about college immediately after graduation; will work or be in the service.

Consultation with school adviser: Has talked with school adviser but no definite plans made; adviser suggested joining the armed forces.

Description of general make-up as checked: friendly, patient, capable, calm, bashful, cheerful.

Wish expressed as to what he wants 10 or 15 years hence: "Married with my own home."

Second Interview, May 14, 1954

Harold came all set for testing in this second interview. The appointment was changed from three o'clock to one o'clock because he had to go to San Rado to get his teaching permit from the Y.M.C.A. He anticipates teaching swimming to young children in the summer.

The verbal and mechanical parts of the Differential Aptitude Test were given. He was very cooperative and finished the tests ahead of time.

After taking the two tests, he was asked if he would like to take an intelligence test. He said yes and asked if he would be informed of his I.Q. score. Then he related that his mother had told him he was once given an intelligence test when he was a small child and got an I.Q. score of 120. However, he does not remember anything about it, if he really did take one. We then agreed that our next appointment was to be for individual testing, and set a tentative date for it.

Third Interview, May 19, 1954

Arrangement was made with Mrs. Linda Fram to give Harold the Stanford-Binet Test.

According to the report of the examiner, Harold seemed a little tense on entering the testing situation. He went through the first four levels of the 14-year level very easily; he spent some time with the ingenuity problems. He was unable to pass the reconciliation of opposites—not because he didn't know but because he was thinking of something more difficult than the obvious.

He passed all the tests on the average adult level. He did the code item unusually fast and explained the proverb meanings in a very clear and accurate way.

Fourth Interview, May 20, 1954

Harold seemed happy when the examiner told him that he made very

good scores on the test and that he falls in the classification of superior adult level.

All his test scores and his other records were brought out before him and interpreted. We had a little discussion regarding his scholastic standing, his abilities as revealed by tests, and his interests.

The counselor called attention to his low grades (mostly C's and a few B's and D's) and his I.Q. level. He was asked if it meant anything at all and why. He was quick to see that he could have done much better in his courses; he admitted that he had not tried. The teachers were "boring" and so were their courses, except for a few, he said. He had had arguments with some of his instructors. When asked how it happened that he failed in Algebra but when he repeated the course got an A, he said, "Oh, that's different. The first teacher was simply boring. I just wished that that teacher would keep to his explaining on the board rather than talk about nothing. The second teacher was different. He was simply interesting and when the tests came, I was surprised because I knew them all along."

Harold related his arguments with his teacher in Senior Problems (from the way he described the course, it was one in family life).

"My idea is," he said, "a teacher cannot teach well about babies when she does not know children because she never had any. This teacher of mine never got married. I asked her one day why she never married. She did not answer me.

"One time, we were asked to make a family budget for a year, based on a modest income. I made one for a fifteen-thousand-dollar income and included such items as a chauffeur, servants for each child, vacations, and so on. I guess that did it. She gave me a C. She could not give me a grade lower than that."

Other discussions followed. He talked about his occasional arguments with his mother. He does not want to stay home this summer, fearing conflict with his mother. He has chosen "Cal-Poly" College because it is far from home.

We also discussed the results of the Vocational Interest Test. As we went through the different vocations, he emphatically said he was not interested in any of the vocations except engineering. That is the only one which interests him. He wondered why the other items came out as his interests when they do not appeal to him at all.

Then we discussed his future plans on the basis of the data we had on hand and his interests.

Harold has decided to work for a year or so after graduation. He will try his best to pass the entrance examination for California Polytechnic College. Once admitted, he will pursue courses in the engineering field.

Our last interview was a long one which ended very amicably. Harold seemed very pleased and sounded very grateful. He said that he would

write to the counselor when he is admitted and that he would inform her of his progress.

Summary

Many of the individual problems and behavior symptoms with which a school counselor must deal are so similar that they can be classified under a few general headings and can be handled by a routine procedure as far as initiating and continuing counseling are concerned. The guidance worker must, of course, be ever alert to the possibility that emotional symptoms may derive from a truly serious problem; and, when he does suspect that this is the case, he must be diligent in referring the client to agencies which can provide the necessary help and in following through on the case.

The kinds of cases with which the school counselor deals are chiefly matters of planning for education and vocations, educational achievement, social adjustment, and minor personal problems. Most such problems can be approached in a fairly systematic manner. Although no counseling effort can be rigidly structured and its elements sharply partitioned, the typical progression points of the counseling process can be listed for convenience as follows:

(1) *Establishing initial rapport.* The first contact between counselor and client is important. Taking the initiative, the counselor greets the client in an interested, friendly fashion and makes a careful effort to establish an atmosphere of warmth and full acceptance. Failure to establish the proper emotional tone will result in the client's feeling rejected, and effective "thinking together" will be impossible to achieve.

(2) *Structuring the counseling situation.* The counselor sets the stage in the way in which he meets the client and in the way in which he explains that it is his role to listen to the student and to think with him about his problem.

(3) *Stating the problem.* The counselor asks the client to state his problem; this request is usually made simply and directly. As the counselor listens, he seeks to grasp the *content* of the problem, to learn how emotionally upset the client is, and to get some estimate of the client's over-all adjustment.

(4) *Counselor decisions on approach to be used.* The counselor decides whether the problem is one that properly falls within the area of his responsibility. If so, he decides upon what techniques to use in working

with the client; if not, he decides what agency to refer the client to for appropriate aid.

(5) *Making systematic steps in thinking through the problem.* The counselor may suggest to the client that a wise decision is based upon adequate information and that the client should gather data pertinent to his problem. Together, they list factors in the client's situation about which he needs further information. The counselor helps the client to understand, too, that the final decision must be his own.

(6) *Gathering the data.* Data may be assembled from an autobiography written by the client and from his school record of achievement and tests. The counselor may help the client to understand how further tests may be of value, and to set up a schedule of tests.

(7) *Interpreting the data.* Counselor and client cooperate in interpreting data regarding interests, abilities, and aptitudes. The client explains personal data—how much effort went into earning his marks, how he gets along with his family, etc.; the counselor explains test scores and implications.

(8) *Synthesizing possible courses of action.* Counselor and client together compile various courses of action open to the student and evaluate each one in terms of its feasibility and consequences and the client's desires and abilities.

(9) *Planning.* At this stage the client makes a decision, or sets a goal, for himself. The counselor helps him to understand that such a decision is only tentative and is to be modified whenever the client feels that new insight or data or desires justify change. Unless some realistic plan of action results from counseling, the client may feel more frustrated than before.

(10) *Making a summary statement.* The final interview concludes with a summarization, by the client, of the conclusions reached. The counselor may restate the summarization to be sure that both understand clearly the progress to date of the problem-solving effort. A written summary is made later by the counselor as a record for both his use and the school files.

(11) *Invitation for further counseling.* Every counseling interview should end with an invitation to the client to return: he should be encouraged to feel that the counselor wishes to help him with any change in plans or any new problem that may develop.

(12) *Follow-up.* The counselor should occasionally look into the activities of a client after counseling—to encourage the client, to guide him if planned courses of action have been neglected, and to evaluate the success of the counseling effort in terms of the outcomes.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Devise a graphic form for synthesizing the ability and interest data presented in the case of Sam Adams. Prepare the form in such a way that it could be used directly in interpreting test findings for the boy.

2. Discuss the shifting role of the counselor throughout the series of steps which are made in the counseling process. Consider particularly those steps in which the counselor accepts responsibility for leading in the interview.

3. It has been said that the counselor makes many judgments about the client as the counseling process unfolds. Reconcile this fact with the position that decision rests with the client.

4. Prepare a plan for a series of five counseling contacts with a boy of sixteen who has been referred by the teacher of college-preparatory chemistry. No other information is immediately available. Create an imaginary situation showing how the counselor establishes initial rapport, how he structures the counseling situation, how he states the problem, and so on for the other steps in the counseling process.

5. Examine the monograph entitled *The Case of Mickey Murphy* (by Warren R. Baller, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln 8, Nebraska, 1954 revised edition). Prepare a critical evaluation of this case study as it relates to the counseling process.

6. Various approaches to counseling have been described as "client-centered," "counselor-centered," "problem-centered," "data-centered," "clinical," and "eclectic." Discuss these different approaches in terms of their likenesses and differences.

AND PROJECTS

7. Prepare a statement of your own concept of the role of the counselor in the school situation.

8. Should grades be used as a disciplinary tool?

"James! I told the class that there was to be no more talking."
"Sorry, I—"
"You'll get an F for today."

A boy comes to gym class without his suit. He is told to leave and that he will be marked down. A student caught cheating in a test has his paper torn up. He gets a failing mark for the test.

But grades are a record of achievement. When a counselor sits down with a student who wants to plan his educational or vocational future, they study the records; and one significant part of the records—a part which will go a long way toward indicating whether the student has promise for college success or not—is his history of achievement in courses.

Does the instructor who gives a student a failing mark as a method of disciplining him make a proper use of grading? Or is this practice an indication that it is the instructor who has failed in insight, in classroom management, in patience?

How can a counselor deal with this problem? How can he determine whether a particular individual's grades are lower than his abilities warrant? Should he attempt to mediate between a teacher and pupil when such a situation occurs?

9. In the following role-playing situation, homework has been assigned as a disciplinary measure. Since marks are so important in the student's

record, the situation is of more than temporary importance. In playing these roles, re-create the mingled feelings of guilt and resentment and the tangle of cross-purposes in such a way that some possible solutions will develop.

1. You are the English instructor. This class of high-school freshmen has been a difficult one—unresponsive, undisciplined, erratic in achievement. You have warned them repeatedly to buckle down to work. You have disciplined individuals for disrupting the work of the class. Finally, after an unusually bad half-hour, you have laid a penalty upon the whole class: they must bring in a ten-page essay on *The Merchant of Venice* next Monday. (This is Friday.) Ten pages, no less; if any paper is shorter, or if more than three grammatical errors occur on any paper, that paper will get an F. Severe? Yes. But it will put a damper on spirits that insist on getting out of hand.

2. You are a girl in the class, and you have the lead in a play at the community playhouse. You were planning to work hard all weekend to make yourself letter-perfect in the role. You can't possibly do that and write this paper, too.

3. You are the boy whose mischief brought this disaster upon the whole class. Your neighbors are glaring at you.

4. You are a student who does well in math but finds English difficult. You've been getting D's. Ordinarily, it would take you two weeks to write this paper and get your other work done as well. You know you won't be able to finish this project by Monday; you'll get an F, and that F may make you fail in this course. You hope to get to State College, but this F on top of the ones you can't escape getting will definitely hurt your chances.

5. You are scheduled to go on a fishing trip with your father over the weekend. Your father is captain of an oil tanker and will be leaving for a six-months cruise next week. You make good grades usually, but this F will probably bring your average below B.

This role-playing may be done by a faculty group, by a group of counselors, by students in a teachers' college, by a parent group, or even by a group of high-school pupils. Role-playing by students might provide a basis for particularly fruitful insights for teachers.

Some long-term considerations are at stake in the way such a problem of human relations is worked out, among them:

(1) the students' attitudes toward school and teachers;

(2) the teacher's attitudes toward discipline in the classroom;

(3) individual students' attitudes toward the course and the subject matter;

(4) individual students' relations with one another.

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· 8 ·

Assessing Student Abilities

MOST SCHOOL ACTIVITIES reflect the needs of the students. The administrator plans a new shop building, for example, in response to evidence that a number of pupils have the interest, the physical capacity, the learning ability —and the parental endorsement of their interest—that will enable them to benefit from study and experience in a specific craft field. Similarly, the teacher of eighth-grade English, in developing a course of study and detailed daily lessons, applies her knowledge of the backgrounds, interests, goals, and needs of her student group. And the counselor, in planning an interview with a student who wants to drop out of school, applies his knowledge not only of the young man's capacities and school achievement but also of his personal relationships, his previous behavior, and the problems which caused him concern.

Each of these situations calls for judgment in which knowledge of student characteristics is involved. The more comprehensive and accurate the data on those characteristics, the better the teacher or counselor knows the pupil, the more successful is the teaching or counseling effort likely to be. In order to "learn the learner" it is obviously necessary to collect, synthesize, and

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interpret information from many sources; and these processes—the varied and specialized tasks of gathering, interpreting and synthesizing data—constitute perhaps the most important function of a guidance program.

Information about a pupil is built up in a variety of ways. Probably the most commonly known items in the inventory are teachers' marks, which appear on the periodic report cards given to parents. Report-card data are systematically recorded on a cumulative record form. School attendance records are also universally kept. Another commonly found item in the data collection is the record of a pupil's achievement on the various tests administered by the school. As the guidance program in a school grows in scope, and as the staff becomes increasingly dedicated to the goal of serving the needs of each student, the process of studying the individual becomes much more searching and much more personalized.

Elements of an Adequate Student Record

An adequate student record indicates what the individual knows, what he can do, and what he is like as a person. These simplified requirements involve, of course, much more than a record of marks in school courses, attendance, and promotion. Even if one assumes that what the pupil knows is measured with reasonable accuracy by the record of subjects studied and the relative achievement in those subjects, two important considerations demand additional data: (1) What one can do may well involve a whole array of skills and abilities—academic, physical, social, and occupational. One's personal effectiveness in living and working depends to a major degree on these skills. (2) What one is like as a person involves his methods of getting along with people, his temperament, his patterns of behavior, his ways of adjusting to situations, his mental health. This kind of information is at once the most important and the most difficult to obtain; yet any serious attempt to understand the individual, to make his needs known, and to develop an instructional and guidance program to serve his needs must involve these data.

The scope of the information obtained in a good individual inventory, the personal file on each student, is indicated by the items found in a typical school record form. This form provides for systematic, year-by-year recording of data on the following points:

1. *Personal (Identification)*
   Name
   Date of birth

Evidence for verifying birthdate
Place of birth
Sex
Residence

2. *Home and Community*
   Name of parents or guardians
   Occupations of parents
   Ratings on home environment
   Birthplace of parents
   Language spoken in home
   Marital status of parents
   Siblings—names, ages, education

3. *Scholarship*
   School marks by years and subjects
   Special reports on failures
   Record of reading
   Rank in class
   Honors won

4. *Test Scores and Ratings*
   Achievement-test scores
   Interest-inventory results
   Aptitude-test scores
   Personality ratings
   Other test scores

5. *School Attendance*
   Record of schools attended, with dates
   Days present and absent each year

6. *Health*
   Height—annual or semiannual measurements
   Weight—same
   Hearing
   Vision
   Condition of teeth
   Physical disabilities
   Vaccination record
   Disease record
   Recommendations and referrals by school doctor or nurse

7. *Employment*
   Part-time jobs—dates, duties, earnings
   Summer jobs—same
   Employer reports
   Work-experience reports

8. *Activity Records*
   Athletics—team, dates
   Clubs—dates, status
   Student-body offices and activities
   Class offices and activities
   Nonschool clubs and activities
   Hobbies and leisure-time activities

9. *Anecdotal Records*
   (Usually reported on special forms, these brief, occasional, descriptive reports of bits of behavior in specific situations may concern success or problem experiences. Incidents and events should be reported separately from opinion. An accumulation of such records adds to understanding of the student's behavior.)

10. *Interview Notes*
    (Records should be kept of each interview. Much of the information will be different for each situation, but among the items commonly recorded are the following:)
    Date of contact
    Reason for interview
    Interests and plans expressed
    Nature of problem discussed
    Action taken

11. *Follow-up Record*
    This part of the record may contain periodic reports of employment, education, satisfactions, and problems.

The view presented here of the nature and content of pupil records is very similar to that expressed by A. E. Traxler, an authority in the field of school records and their evaluation. Collecting and recording useful data on individual students is a logical starting point in developing a guidance service. This scientific study of the growth and development of each student should cover a number of areas which, taken together, will produce a reasonably accurate picture of the student as a whole person.

When the development of a cumulative record system is considered, certain questions inevitably arise: What are the essential areas of information that should be covered? What should the counselor know about his clients? In answer to these questions, Traxler has suggested ten areas in which information is essential.[1]

Essential Items in the Cumulative Record

1. *Home Background*
   Factors concerning the home environment, the parents, brothers and

[1] Arthur E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance*, Harper and Brothers, 1945, pp. 20-25.

sisters, study conditions, and other items that might affect the student's adjustment.

2. *School History and Record of Classwork*
A chronological and complete record of school attendance, achievement, activities, and problems. Comments of past teachers are often revealing.

3. *Mental Ability or Academic Aptitude*
Two or more scholastic-aptitude-test scores are advocated, preferably with separate scores for linguistic and quantitative aptitude. A measure of reading ability is also desirable.

4. *Achievement-test Scores*
Objective evidence of achievement in different fields of study, to supplement the teachers' grades. Common tests include the fields of English, mathematics, science, social studies, language.

5. *Health*
At least a summary statement of the individual's health and physical characteristics, especially limitations.

6. *Out-of-school Experience*
Summer experiences, work experiences, current jobs, etc.

7. *Educational and Vocational Interests*
Two types of information are needed: scores on interest questionnaires, and a record of the student's activities as reflectors of interests.

8. *Special Aptitudes*
These are closely related to interests. Any special talents should be noted, as in art, music, literature, mechanical skills, etc.

9. *Personality*
A synthesis of behavioral tendencies, especially noting marked deviations from "normal."

10. *Plans for the Future*
Educational and occupational plans as indicated by the student, his parents, and the counselor.

In most public schools, a record of individual performance is begun at the time the child enters school. Parents supply the essential information about the child's health, age, birthdate, physical development, and special characteristics. This original recorded information helps teachers to make the transition from home to school easier for the child. As the pupil passes from grade to grade through elementary school, the records which teachers have kept on him move with him. Some schools use only the teacher's roll book for this purpose, but such a record includes nothing more than attendance, achievement, and perhaps a few random health and behavior notes.

Most schools have developed comprehensive forms for recording all the items listed in the preceding outline; these forms are filled out by the teacher at the end of each year. When the pupil changes schools, a transcript of this record goes with him to the new school. It takes time, of course, to keep such records, but this is a very important phase of the teacher's work with and for each pupil.

Too few schools give adequate attention to the last three items in the outline—*anecdotal records, interview notes,* and *follow-up data*—although these are in many cases the only individualizing elements in the whole record except for the name and family. All other items—marks, test scores, etc.—may be identical for several students, and yet each actually represents a different personality. The value of the objectively described incident—the anecdote—is that it shows how the student actually behaved in a known situation; and an array of such anecdotes, recorded by different teachers and at different times, may show patterns of behavior or characteristic responses.

The following items are examples of the sort of anecdotes a teacher may record as she observes a pupil's behavior:

> A cast was selected for Arnold's play today, and the actors went through a first reading of the script. Jim was given the role of the father. He did not read very clearly. Arnold, sitting midway back in the auditorium, called out sharply, "Louder!" Other students looked around at him in annoyance. Jim tried to speak more articulately, but he has a naturally low-pitched voice. I saw that Arnold was fidgeting; it was his play, and he wanted every word heard distinctly. Again he burst out, "Can't you talk any louder than that?" Other students looked around at him, and there were comments: "Oh, shush!" "Who does he think he is?" and "Mr. Big-Shot has to sound off."

> Mrs. Morton brought five-year-old Andy to summer school this morning, again. She had evidently talked to him and prepared him, for he let her go away and leave him without raising a fuss the way he did yesterday. But he wouldn't come into the classroom. He remained there in the doorway, watching, big-eyed but silent and immovable. Doris, who is usually so persuasive with the small children, talked to him and invited him in, but he wouldn't budge; he just clung to the doorpost and watched, saying nothing.

> Martha asked me for a social-studies reader today. I gave her one, and she sat at her desk with the book open, staring at the page. The material was too difficult for her, and she never turned the page; but she sat there, busy "reading." And when she went home, she took the book with her as if she had homework to do just like anybody else.

The interview can, among other functions, show the pupil as an indi-

vidual, for in it he has opportunity to tell his story—his achievements, his interests, and his problems. However, the data from a single interview reflect the student's feeling at that one time and in that one situation. Even so, whether his verbal reports agree or disagree with the factual data in his record, they are still important in understanding him. Interview data has been discussed in chapters 6 and 7.

When the pupil enters junior high school, his record or a transcript of it goes too. This record gives the junior-high-school teachers and counselors a basis for getting acquainted with him. During the junior-high years, the pupil has many changes to adjust to, both in himself and in his school environment. In school, he begins to explore different fields of work and learning and to make decisions, for he must plan his own program. Usually he needs the help of his counselor.

Teachers on this level see the pupil in only one class instead of throughout the day; in order to know each pupil, therefore, they are more dependent on written information than is the elementary teacher. The record form which will follow the pupil through his years in the secondary school is usually started in the seventh grade. The counselor is primarily responsible for beginning and keeping this record; but if it is to be really useful it should be compiled by both teachers and counselor as the result of interested observation and reporting. Many schools use a comprehensive questionnaire or personal-data sheet to obtain basic information for starting the record. The questionnaire includes information about the home, previous schools, health, interests, hobbies, plans, and other factors on which the student can report. In some schools the information is obtained by interview or by a combination of questionnaire and interview. Frequently parents are asked to fill out papers or to come to school for interviews. Sometimes pupils are asked to write autobiographies which, with their permission, become part of their individual records.

The Validity of Records

Records have limitations; at best, they show, incompletely, what pupils have done in school and what their abilities and interests appear to be at a given time. The picture one gets of a pupil's abilities from a study of his marks is not infallibly accurate; nor is the record a fully reliable indicator of what he will do in the future. The record of marks is undependable because it is concerned largely with school performance; everyone knows pupils who have done poorly in school but have performed outstandingly at home or on a job. Even regarding those aspects of ability that it does cover, a mark is only partially reliable, for it represents the teacher's judgment: it is partly

a measure of achievement or growth in the subject and partly a measure of the interaction between the personalities of the pupil and the instructor. The mark must also be interpreted in the light of a specific school group and the standards of a specific teacher, for an A grade in one school or with one teacher may be equivalent to a C elsewhere, yet it stands on the record as an A.

For prediction of future performance, records are fallible on other grounds as well.[2] The student's record is a picture of what he has done so far. But people change. The boy with an indifferent high-school record may become an outstanding student in college; the girl who was shy in the seventh grade may become the belle of the ball in high school; and the boy who quit school at sixteen may become one of the town's most able mayors. The school record is a measure of how the pupil has applied his capacities in a certain situation. A new situation, new goals, maturity, and new incentives may bring forth drives which produce quite different results.

The Value of Records

Despite their limitations, however, records are important. What the individual has done in the past is still the best indicator of what he will do in the future; and, on the average, the student with the superior record in high school will become the superior achiever in college. This fact has been verified many times, and colleges select students on the basis of high-school marks. Typically, the person who makes a high score on one test will make a high score on the next; the student who has the high test score in scholastic aptitude will give a superior performance in the class and will earn the high grade; the person who has got along well with his peers in high school will make good social adjustments in adult life; and the worker who has made a good record on one job will be successful on the next.

The point to be made here is that, for most people, the pattern of performance at one period will be indicative of the pattern of performance in the next period. The limitation to be noted is that what is true for the group may not be true for an individual; averages tend to conceal individual variation. But the parent and the counselor must be as alert to the possibilities of *change* as to the probabilities of continuance, for human behavior is exceedingly complex, and each individual is unique in his possibilities. The wise parent, teacher, or counselor therefore approaches the direction or prediction of individual behavior with great caution—and with humility.

[2] Albert B. Crawford and Paul S. Burnham, *Forecasting College Achievement,* Yale University Press, 1946, Chapter 3.

Measures of Scholastic Ability

One of the common problems of students in the secondary school is the planning of their own educational programs. Most high schools have three major channels leading to graduation: the college-preparatory, the vocational, and the general curriculum.

The college-preparatory curriculum consists of a planned sequence of largely academic—or "book-learning"—courses which provide the student with a background for college work. Vocationally, this program leads to the professions or other occupations requiring a high level of general or abstract learning. The major ability requirement is at least average scholastic ability or verbal intelligence, though equally important are interests in reading and in dealing with abstract ideas, a liking for going to school, and the development of good study skills and habits.

The vocational curriculum is intended to prepare one for more immediate employment. In most schools, several vocational courses are available; in terms of broad fields these include agriculture, the skilled trades, distributive and clerical occupations, and homemaking. Vocational courses in all these areas include both training in skills and imparting of related information and knowledge; their objective is to prepare the trainee to enter a specific occupation not as a fully skilled journeyman but at a level considerably above the unskilled. The courses are frequently coordinated with apprenticeship and other on-the-job training programs which take the young worker on to the craftsman stage. In the business field, certain courses provide the student with the stenographic or office-machine skills and the general business knowledge which lead to an office job; other business courses prepate the student for a job in the distributive field. The agriculture and homemaking programs point directly to work on farms and to housekeeping.

From the greater specificity of these programs as compared with the college-preparatory program it follows that the student must have identified his interests and abilities. The boy in auto mechanics, for example, not only must be interested in working with automobiles but needs manipulative skills, fine visualization, and mechanical comprehension. Such fields require serious, purposeful application and study. The emphasis in the vocational program, as compared with the college-preparatory program, is upon the concrete and the immediate rather than the abstract and the distant, and upon working and dealing with things or people rather than with words and symbols.

Both the college-preparatory and the vocational curriculums, however, require a greater specificity of abilities and more definite interests and pur-

poses than does the general curriculum. The general curriculum in high school nevertheless provides a significant level of general education for students whose abilities are evenly distributed but not high enough to warrant going to college, and for students who want to postpone specific preparation for work until they have greater maturity and have had opportunity to explore various fields of knowledge.

Much attention and study are now being given to developing the general program of the high school as a broad background for effective living. With a well-developed general program, high school would require less immediate vocational planning; specific vocational preparation would be postponed and given in junior colleges and technical institutes. Even with this change, however, the high-school student would still face choices which require self-appraisal and planning.

Scholastic ability is one of the variables to be considered in this appraisal process. Simply defined, scholastic ability means the ability to do well in schoolwork, which, as here used, refers primarily to academic or book learning. It means achievement in what has been described as the college-preparatory program.[3] It is important, also, to make a distinction between *ability* and *aptitude*. An ability is what one can do now. An aptitude is a capacity, a potential, a measure of what one might do at some future time. An aptitude cannot be measured directly but is always inferred from a measure of ability; thus, of two people learning nonsense syllables under uniform conditions, the one who consistently learns 30 percent more is presumed to have greater aptitude.

Many items in the type of school record which has been described are related to scholastic achievement and aptitudes. Among them are school-subject marks, achievement-test scores, aptitude-test scores, and position in class group. The student record below will serve to indicate how a counselor organizes the data for examination with the student. The material has been summarized in order to make its main trends more apparent; the marks given are final ones, beginning with the seventh grade.

	7	8	9	10	11	12
English	A	A	B	B	B	
Social Studies	A	A	A		A	
Arithmetic	C	C				
Algebra			C			
Geometry				C		
General Science			B			
Chemistry						
Physics						

[3] Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 3.

This report is not complete, for it includes only academic, traditionally college-preparatory subjects. To one experienced in evaluating school records, this pattern of grades supports two tentative conclusions: (1) the student's grades are good enough to recommend him for college admission; and (2) his verbal, linguistic, or language abilities are superior to his quantitative or arithmetical abilities. Note that these conclusions are tentative; there may be other reasons for his achievement of only average marks in the mathematics and science areas. An examination of his achievement-test record reveals, moreover, that in the ninth- and eleventh-grade testing programs, his English and social-studies scores were at the 82nd and 95th percentiles for his grade on the national norms, whereas his mathematics and science scores were at the 43rd and 64th percentile points. This evidence supports the same conclusions as the grades but still does not prove that his potentials are substantially better in one area than in the other.

For further evidence, the student and his counselor review his aptitude-test scores. On the group tests of general mental ability administered in the third and fifth grades, he stood at the 87th and 91st percentile positions respectively. On the mental-maturity tests administered in the ninth grade, his score on the language section placed him at the 94th percentile, whereas his score on the nonlanguage section, which involves largely perceptual, spatial, and number abilities, placed him at the 72nd percentile.

In this student's case, the test data give further support to the conclusions based on the pattern of his marks. The counselor is aware, however, that this is not always the case; some people give good accounts of themselves in test situations, whereas others become nervous and are unable to do their best. The marks made in school subjects are subject to the influence of personality differences with the teacher or classmates, differences in interests, and variations in the degree of effort applied. During the interview, the counselor gives the student full opportunity to express his reactions to the data as well as to ask questions. Only the student can contribute such information as the fact that he liked the subjects involving reading much better and therefore gave them most of his study time, or that he really liked mathematics and spent much time on it but still found it difficult. The counselor can check with the teachers on the amount of interest and effort apparent in each case, or he can use the device of a time-study diary to obtain a more systematic picture of time distribution.

These underlying reasons may or may not be important to the student. The student in this case—a senior planning to go to college—may now be trying to decide which college to attend and which subject to major in. If he has developed definite interests in a goal which requires further work in mathematics and science, he may want to go beyond an analysis of *where he*

stands to the question of *what he can do to improve*. Such a question would require still further analysis.

In spite of the fact that each of these items of information—subject marks and test scores—is subject to error, a decision based on a systematic examination of the evidence is much more likely to be sound and to lead to achievable plans than a decision based on interest or wish alone. The school counselor's function is to organize and interpret, for the student and his parents, data from the records ordinarily kept by the school and supplementary information provided by the testing program.

The central point to be made from this illustrative case is that tools, techniques, and data should be available to assist youth and their parents with the difficult task of educational planning. After all, school records and school test data which are not available for the guidance of the student, or are not properly interpreted to the student by one who understands their values and limitations, fail to serve their major purpose.

The data on the case cited above are consistent and fully reinforce the student's earlier decision to take the college-preparatory course; but in another case the evidence might not be so clear. The student whose academic-subject marks and aptitude-test scores are consistently at or below the middle level of his class faces a problem if he wants to go to college. In his case the counselor must look for evidence that these measures do not represent the student's capacities and achievement. Such factors as health, motivation, language background, and failure to develop reading and study skills may have caused him to make scores not really indicative of his ability; these factors should be considered. Indication that some such factors have affected his work may be found in his achievement in nonacademic subjects, in work experience, in his hobbies and other activities; if such clues do exist, the question of re-examining his plan to go to college would need to be weighed. If no such indications exist, it is likely that some other type of post-high-school training would better fit his needs and his abilities. This is a question involving parental aspirations and plans; hence the parents, too, should be informed of all relevant data.

Another common case is that of the student whose marks are low but whose test scores are relatively high. Such a student is often referred to as an "under-achiever." Many factors must be checked before any conclusions can be reached to explain his lack of success and before action can be taken to help him improve. The whole pattern of his grades over a period of several semesters should be examined to see whether they are consistently low or spotty, and whether they show sudden changes or significant subject or teacher variation. Scores on various kinds of tests, also, should be checked. Experienced counselors insist on having scores from at least three com-

parable tests, given over a period of time, as basis for a valid judgment. Achievement-test scores need to be compared with intelligence- and aptitude-test scores. The marks assigned by teachers should be compared with the student's performance on subject-matter achievement tests, and if these are not consistent, the counselor should check with the teacher regarding other factors considered in marking. Marks sometimes reflect an emphasis on participation, on attitudes, on completion of assignments, on social behavior, or on growth in terms of individual capacity. Personality differences between teacher and student may be involved; for example, the strict teacher may be so offended by a rebellious, impulsive student that she unwittingly belittles any effort he makes. It is also possible that the student group, the peer culture, frowns on high grades; sometimes a good student will deliberately neglect study in order not to be a deviate in his group.

In addition to such external factors, the thinking and feeling of the student must be considered. He may lack purpose in school and see little value in making the effort that superior achievement requires; he may be reacting negatively to parental or teacher pressure; he may lack friends and feel unworthy and depressed or, conversely, he may have too many friends and too many social distractions. The school that has a functioning program for studying each individual student has many resources for discovering the potential optimal performance level of each of them. Having such a program provides no assurance, of course, that each student will work at his best level; however, an informed body of teachers, knowing significant facts about each student, a sensitive and skilled guidance service, and parental cooperation rather than parental pressure can go far toward achieving this goal.

Tests of Abilities

Two kinds of tests of individual abilities have been referred to—*achievement* tests and *scholastic-aptitude* (or "intelligence") tests. All tests are sampling processes; they do not attempt complete coverage of the individual's knowledge or skill in a particular field. The test maker selects or devises a group of items to be included in the test instrument. Time is usually the limiting factor in determining the number of items to be placed in a specific test. A spelling test, for example, may include 100 words—only a sampling of the words the student might be able to spell correctly at a given age. The student may spell correctly only 50 words on the test. This does not necessarily mean that he can spell only 50 percent of the words he should be able to spell at his age, for he may be able to spell all the words on some other list of 100. The crux of good test making is the selection of representative items—

items which have a high *discriminative* value. To achieve this reliability requires research and judgment based on evidence. It is possible that, from a list of 10,000 words, 100 can be found which constitute a good index of an individual's general ability to spell.[4]

Performance on a test, like the test content, is again only an indication: it samples the individual's performance at a given time and within a specific set of circumstances. Because many factors of physical and mental health may affect the quality of an individual's performance, it is important to have several scores in the same test area. Tests are so varied in number of items, difficulty of items, and manner of scoring that the actual or raw score has little meaning; to be helpful, the test must be interpreted by relating it to norms—the scores made by others, usually on the same age and grade levels.

Of the various devices used for relating a score to other scores, the percentile is perhaps the most common. The percentile indicates the position of the specific score within the range of scores, with the lowest score treated as 0 and the highest score treated at 100. Thus a score of 70 on the spelling test is given additional meaning by comparing it with the scores made by other students. If 70 is the score made by exactly half of the group which took the test, the student making 70 is at the 50th percentile. If only 10 percent of the group made a score as high as 70, then this student is at the 90th percentile. Thus, again, a percentile of 83 means that the student whose test performance rates that score exceeds the performance of 83 percent of the group taking the test.

The fact that scores are interpreted in terms of the group taking the test introduces a second set of sampling errors. Care must be taken that the normative group is truly representative and adequate in number. The range and distribution of scores of a group of students in an economically deprived rural area may be quite different from the range and distribution of scores for a group from a wealthy suburban school. The fact, therefore, that a specific score is reported as a position in a specific group makes it necessary that the group be known and described before much meaning can be attached to the score.

Enough has been said to indicate that proper construction, selection, and interpretation of tests is not a simple matter. Much work has been done on testing, and research continues. Many tests which meet the applicable standards of objectivity, validity, and reliability are now available for school use. The school which administers its testing program in such a way as to provide local as well as national norms or standards can guard against some of the possible errors of interpretation.

[4] Lee J. Cronbach, *Essentials of Psychological Testing,* Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 1.

Tests of Achievement

Three types of achievement tests are used in secondary schools: single-subject tests, batteries of subject tests, and comprehensive tests of educational development which cut across several subject fields. The single-subject test is perhaps the most familiar. It may be a standardized, published test—for example, the test in American history published by the Cooperative Test Service—or a test constructed by the teacher to cover a unit or a whole course, which may be of the essay type or the objective type. Both essay and objective tests have value. The essay test measures not only the student's information on the subject but also his ability to organize and express his knowledge in coherent language. Disadvantages of the essay test are that it is limited in the range of information that can be covered in a period of time, and it is difficult to evaluate with any degree of reliability: one teacher may grade as excellent the paper to which another teacher assigns a failing grade. The objective test, on the other hand, can cover a great deal of information in a short time, and its answers leave little room for influence of subjective factors.[5]

The standardized test is of the objective type. The manual that accompanies such a test provides data on how other groups of students have performed, and comparison of individual scores with these data makes possible a more objective and reliable estimate of the performance. If such tests are administered periodically—in English, for example—the results can provide a measure of development or growth in that field. From such data, the student can judge his own progress and can compete with himself. These longitudinal data are of especial value in judging the progress of the atypical student, particularly of the very bright or the dull.

The achievement-test battery, such as the *Stanford* or the *Progressive* (now called *California*), provides a survey of the student's knowledge in a number of fields. The *Stanford Achievement Test*, for example, covers reading, language usage, arithmetic, literature, social studies, elementary science, and spelling. The use of such a battery provides data on the over-all achievement of a group or an individual. It permits personal analysis (the comparison of one student with another on the whole test or in separate fields) as well as intrapersonal analysis (the comparison of a single student's relative achievement in the several fields).

These test scores are usually translated into grade-placement terms; for example, a student may score at the tenth-grade level in reading and at the

[5] Traxler, *op. cit.*, Chapter 5.

eighth-grade level in arithmetic. Such test batteries have diagnostic and self-appraisal value, for if they are administered and recorded periodically, the data can be converted to trend lines which may yield valuable information on differential patterns of ability. The guidance worker should insist that all such data be given to the student and interpreted to him through meaningful language and by charts. Only the individual can provide the information necessary to determine whether the differences in scores represent real differences in ability or whether the real differences are in such other factors as interest, study effort, teacher relationship, and other motivational elements.

In spite of the objectivity, reliability, comparability, and relative ease of administration and scoring of standardized test batteries, educators find that their continued use has serious disadvantages in the area of educational objectives and values. The record of experience in many schools indicates that the continued use of externally made tests leads to rigidity in educational content and method. Teachers, students, and parents tend to regard test-passing as the goal of education; teachers feel that their success depends on their students' test achievement, and they consequently "teach the test"; old copies of test batteries are passed among the students, who do a great deal of cramming. As this process continues, the responsibility for determining educational objectives and curriculum content passes from local hands to the test maker. When he selects the items to be included in the test, he determines in effect what should be taught in a given subject. If the test is not frequently remade—and many are not—course content becomes uniform and static, with the result that the test maker is effectively the judge of what everyone should know. There may be a radical divergence between local, community needs and what the test maker judges to be important. In practice, most achievement-test batteries designed for secondary-school use are oriented to the college-bound student. The other curriculum groups described earlier may have quite different objectives and needs, which are not measured by most tests.

These disadvantages, of course, are not primarily the fault of the tests or of the group of expert educational technicians who prepare them. Nevertheless, they are factors which must be weighed in deciding how standardized test batteries are to be used. These dangers can be substantially offset by a variety of practices; thus, some schools use such tests only every other year, and others administer them at different times each year. Some schools administer the tests regularly but are careful to collate the results only on a school-wide or system-wide basis, specifically refraining from examining the class performances of individual instructors. Such practices provide valuable individual and whole-school growth data without arousing

test consciousness and test competition among teachers. Still other schools are able to maintain a balanced view of evaluation as a whole, thus relegating test performance to the status of only one datum in a whole pattern of measures of achievement. Many schools have virtually abandoned the use of batteries of specific-subject tests now that the general educational-development type of test has become available.

Tests of Educational Development

The educational-development test is a derivative of the subject-test battery, with the difference that the educational-development test surveys basic skills and broad areas of knowledge, cutting across specific subject or course content; for example, the *Cooperative General Culture Test* covers such broad areas as current social problems, history and social studies, literature, science, fine arts, and mathematics. The *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*[6] provide for the measurement of certain of the skills involved in all schoolwork—reading, work-study, language, and arithmetic. Although the tests are primarily designed for measuring achievement, they provide an individual profile, charting the student's standing at successive periods, which is a usable index of differential abilities. The diagnostic features of the tests provide the teacher with clues not only to the facts of low achievement but also to the causes—the specific skill weaknesses. Such data are basic to individualized teaching. Because these tests are concerned with learning skills and broad areas of knowledge, they have less tendency than subject-test batteries to make the school test-conscious or test-dominated. Several such tests are now available for use in high schools.

It should be observed, finally, that all these tests measure achievement—essentially scholastic achievement. The scores are usually interpreted in terms of grade placement or percentile standing in a designated group. They supplement the record of marks achieved in school subjects; and, when considered together with marks and teacher opinions, they provide not only measures of progress but also valuable clues to the individual's pattern of abilities. Such information enables the counselor to help the student plan a program which capitalizes on his strong abilities. The teacher can use the data to evaluate learning progress and to plan reteaching and remedial procedures. Both the subject marks and the achievement-test data enable the parent to take a more objective view of his child's progress and future possibilities. Most important, the data—when fully interpreted to the student—can aid him in purposeful planning.

[6] See the Manual (Science Research Associates, 1954) accompanying the *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*.

Summary

The more knowledge a teacher or counselor has of a pupil, the more successful is the teaching or counseling effort likely to be. Information about each pupil is found in the school's cumulative record, which usually includes data about home and family, school marks, test scores and ratings, health and attendance, employment, anecdotal accounts, interview notes, and follow-up record. Anecdotal records, interview notes, and follow-up information are the only individualizing elements of the record (other than name and family), and they have value in that an examination of such informational items may show patterns of behavior and characteristic responses. Secondary-school teachers—who see a pupil for only one period each day— are even more dependent upon the cumulative record for information than are elementary-school teachers.

Although records are not infallible, in general they do have important predictive value. School marks and test scores are better bases for making decisions on courses of action than interest or wish alone. Typically, an individual's pattern of performance at one period will indicate his performance in the next period.

The college-preparatory and vocational curriculums in high schools require more specific abilities and interests than does the general curriculum. In order to enter colleges and professional schools, students must demonstrate scholastic ability; their record of marks in courses and their test scores will indicate their capacity to do well in schoolwork. In order to enter definite vocations, students must demonstrate specific ability for those occupations.

In counseling a pupil who wishes to plan his future, the guidance worker must understand thoroughly the niceties of reliability and validity of testing techniques, for many factors may skew the results of test instruments. Because people change, and because special circumstances may cause some individuals to perform poorly, tests should be repeated over a period of time and a composite result arrived at. In this effort to obtain a valid gauge of a student's ability and promise, achievement-test scores should be compared with intelligence- and aptitude-test results, and marks earned in courses should be compared with results of subject-matter achievement tests—though the counselor should always bear in mind that teachers' marks are in many cases influenced by conflict between instructor and student, emotional upsets, factors of low interest and poor motivation, or other external pressures.

To achieve real competence, the counselor must make a thorough study of the literature of testing; he cannot otherwise develop skill in selecting, administering, and interpreting test data.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. List the steps you would take with a new class or group to "learn the learner." Which of these steps seems easiest for you? Which ones hardest?

2. To which records would you turn to find out what the individual knows? Which ones tell what he can do? Which ones tell what he is like as a person?

3. Compare the school record form used in your high school with the typical record form described in this chapter. What items are included in your form but are not in this one? Are there some items in this typical form which are not in yours? Is your form systematically checked? By whom?

4. Cumulative records have been the subject of numerous studies, workshops, and conferences. How can the fruit of all this thinking be brought to influence the record-keeping procedures used in your school?

5. What kind of remarks on personality are commonly found in school records?

6. What section of the cumulative record is usually most carefully kept?

7. Write an anecdotal report for a cumulative record in your files, underlining each word or statement which is judgmental in nature.

8. Scan the reports about your ablest pupil which came to you from his former grade or school. How many different persons have contributed to these reports? How well do they help you to know the pupil?

9. What intelligence-test data would you place in the cumulative record? How would you report the scores?

AND PROJECTS

10. Defend this statement: Probably the best predictor of a student's future success is his past record of grades.

11. Indicate what you would consider a minimal record system for a junior high school. For a senior high school. For a junior college.

12. The Age-Grade Distribution Chart is a typical procedure for making

Write in the top left-hand corner of each square the number of boys for the point of distribution represented by the square; write the number of girls for each point of distribution in the bottom right-hand corner, as indicated below. Use the age of each pupil as of October 31, 19—.

Age-Grade Distribution

School Year 19_____

| Age | Grades |
	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	Total
11							
12							
13							
14							
15							
16							
17							
18							
19							
Totals							

Boys / Girls
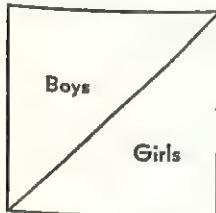
a rough analysis of student progress. It indicates the extent to which students are above or below expected grade placement. Criticize this procedure in the light of current knowledge and school provision for individual differences. Gather the data and fill in the blanks for a school to which you have access. How broad a band should "expectancy" cover?

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Assessing Student Aptitudes

MEASURES OF ACADEMIC APTITUDE

MEASURES OF VOCATIONAL APTITUDE

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

TYPICALLY, students ask the counselor: "Should I take the college-preparatory course?" and "Do I have what it takes to succeed in college?" In order to help the student find the answer to his question, the counselor must be familiar with the nature of aptitudes—particularly scholastic, mechanical, and clerical aptitudes, which are of major importance for educational and vocational planning—and be able to assess them. In addition, the school must have data on the potential learning abilities of pupils in order to plan courses that will fit actual needs.

An aptitude is not a developed competence, such as skill in doing arithmetic or flying a plane or operating a tractor; rather, it is a *potential* ability to do something—a dynamic mixture of interests and capacities which enable a person to become competent in some type of art or work.[1] An individual develops ability in a specific field by learning and training—by maturing his aptitude for it. Most people have aptitudes, though of course these vary in kind and in amount.

[1] Walter V. Bingham, *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing*, Harper and Brothers, 1937, Chapter 1.

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Since an aptitude is a potential rather than a realized ability, it cannot be measured directly but must always be presumed from some measure of ability, usually a test. Tests, however, are not the only means of discovering aptitudes; some predictive value lies, for example, in analysis of a student's past achievement: his record in elementary mathematics, for example, provides a useful basis for predicting what he will do in higher mathematics, and his achievement in English composition in high school is an excellent indication of ability to write well in college. Perhaps a trial or exploratory course in higher mathematics (or composition, history, or science) would be an even better measure of aptitude. In a sense, a test provides such an exploration because it is a sample of what an individual can do with certain kinds of tasks.

Measures of Academic Aptitude

Much careful research has been done in developing and validating tests to predict an individual's future success in certain kinds of work. One type of test commonly used in schools is the scholastic-aptitude test. Sometimes called an intelligence or mental-ability test, this type of test has been found to be most useful for predicting school success in the sense that experience has shown that pupils who score high on it usually make high grades in their courses. The test, however, is valid only in scholastic areas, for a high test score does not necessarily indicate future success in athletics or social relations or in a job or profession. No test, as a matter of fact, can be valid for all these fields. And the careful guidance worker is well aware that test scores do not yield perfect predictions even in the scholastic field.

The student with highest test scores is not always the highest achiever, nor is the student with a low score inevitably doomed to failure. Many factors other than intelligence enter into scholastic success; and, at best, a test represents only a sampling of an individual's abilities. His score may vary from one test period to another and from one test to another. Moreover, as sociologists have pointed out, cultural differences—even within the same community—may introduce test-score variations which have no relationship to the individual's native capacity. The privileged youngster and the "dead-end kid" may live within two blocks of each other in some cities; and whereas one may have frequent opportunities for travel and recreation and rich learning experiences, the other may rarely venture from the deprived environment of the slum. Yet, in spite of these and other limitations, psychological tests

which are properly used can be of great value in educational.and vocational guidance.

Four factors determine the usefulness of intelligence tests in education: selection of an appropriate instrument, proper administration of the test, accurate scoring, and judicious interpretation of the results obtained.[2] Test data can help in analyzing how well an individual, or a group, has learned in relation to learning potential; and, in addition, test data can help in the selection of appropriate courses for the individual or the group. In terms of broad occupational areas, test data can aid in vocational selection and planning. In these areas, decisions have to be made that are important for both the individual and the school. The counselor, to function well, needs all the objective data he can assemble.

Tests have been developed on the basis of several concepts of the nature of intelligence.[3] According to one concept, intelligence is a stable, unitary factor which can be represented by a single symbol or index—an intelligence quotient. A second concept holds that two factors contribute to any intelligent action: a general factor, which is operative in all behavior, and a specific factor, which relates to a specific situation. A third concept maintains that an individual has "intelligences" rather than intelligence. According to this third theory, different tests must be used to measure different capacities or kinds of intelligence; and the resulting index of abilities and presumed capacities would be a profile or series of measures rather than a single score. Thus an individual's test results would provide an index of verbal abilities, social abilities, and mechanical abilities. Some tests identify as many as eight abilities, and some researchers postulate even more ability factors.

The *California Test of Mental Maturity*, which is used by many schools, provides three measures of mental ability: (1) an index of language or linguistic ability, (2) an index of nonlanguage or performance ability, and (3) a total score, or index of mental maturity.

Another test commonly used in senior high schools and colleges, the *American Council Psychological Examination*, is based on a two-factor orientation. This test provides an index of the subject's language or verbal intelligence (the L score) and of his quantitative or numerical intelligence (the Q score).

The purpose of all such tests is to obtain a measure of the individual's *capacity to learn*. Ideally, this measure should be independent of what the

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[2] P. L. Boynton, "Intelligence and Intelligence Testing," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, American Educational Research Association, Macmillan Co., 1941.

[3] James L. Mursell, *Psychological Testing*, Longmans, Green and Co., 1947, Chapters 1-3.

person *has* learned; but actually the two are always related, for one demonstrates how much he can learn by some measure of the amount he has learned. Yet, every parent and teacher recognizes that there is a difference. For example, one student makes a score of 90 on a test in arithmetic with little effort, whereas another has to work hard and persistently to make the same grade. Do they demonstrate a difference in their capacity to learn arithmetic? Again, one girl makes honor grades in four academic subjects during the same month that she is devoting her evenings and study periods to the class play, whereas another girl is able to make honor grades only by applying herself to study three hours every day. Is there a difference in capacity? Teachers, who observe these contrasts in achievement daily, believe that there is.

An individual's score on a scholastic-aptitude test may be reported in a number of ways. One such measure is the mental age, which is determined directly from the test. The test contains, for each year of mental age, items which have been carefully selected as representative of the performance of individuals at that mental age; and, as a result, the test is actually a scale—graduated in months and years of mental age—against which a subject can be measured. Thus, a child who successfully passes as many test items as the average child of 9 has a mental age of 9. This mental age is also called a "test age" (for a specific test). From mental age and chronological age an I.Q. (intelligence quotient) is derived by applying a simple formula: $I.Q. = 100 \times \dfrac{MA}{CA}$. Thus the child whose mental age is 9 and whose chronological age is 10 has an I.Q. of 90, whereas a child with a mental age of 9 and a chronological age of 8 has an I.Q. of 112. The I.Q. provides an index that makes possible comparison of one child with another. The method of deriving the I.Q. also makes it clear that a score above 100 is above average, and a score below 100 is below average.

Problems of Interpretation

It has been pointed out that no test thus far developed has perfect reliability. It is impossible, for example, to say with certainty that a child whose I.Q. is 102 is actually brighter than a child whose I.Q. is 98; the I.Q. does not make for precise distinctions. Rough comparisons, however, can be validly made. The range of I.Q. from 90 to 110 is usually considered to be average or normal, whereas higher scores indicate varying degrees of brightness and lower scores identify degrees of mental dullness. These generalizations are based on measures of the population at large. If an I.Q. is to provide a valid measure of intelligence, its interpretation should be based

on the range of scores within the school where it was taken (local norms) as well as on national norms.

Not all intelligence or scholastic-aptitude test scores can be translated into mental ages or intelligence quotients. Many are reported in the same manner as the achievement-test scores already described. The actual or raw test score is applied to a distribution to obtain a percentile score; thus, the individual whose score is exactly in the middle of the distribution and is thus, roughly, average, has a percentile rank of 50. Above this middle point, scores indicate degrees of brightness, and below it, degrees of dullness. To have meaning, a percentile score must always be related to a specific set of norms. Good standardized tests provide norms based on large, well-defind populations and many schools and various colleges have developed local norms which provide further data for interpretation of test results.

As an illustration of how a test score should be evaluated, let us consider a case in which an individual scores 122 on a specific test. For this test, a score of 122 ranks at the 82nd percentile on national norms, the 74th percentile on local norms, and the 50th percentile on college norms. These placements mean, roughly, that this student, compared to all other boys of his grade level, is fairly superior and can be expected to do good academic work in his high school, where the competition is a little higher than the average for the whole country. If this pupil goes to the state college, however, he will be in the average group. Even this prognosis, however, must be accepted with some caution: it is based upon many assumptions, one of which is that the student performed on the test as he usually performs, whereas he may actually have surpassed his routine level of achievement or fallen far below it. Research indicates that a broad range of variation occurs in test performance and that a broad range of possible error must therefore be presumed.

Test results are not the only criteria on which to base predictions of a pupil's future performance in school: the marks he has earned in the past and his teachers' opinions of his ability are also important data for this purpose, especially so because they represent "intelligence in action"—the actual way an individual functions in his job of getting an education. A test score, of course, is more objective than teacher opinion and much more likely to be free of an observer's bias.

The pupil needs this variety of appraisals in order to plan goals for himself. Parents need these objective and comparable data in order to form intelligent educational aspirations for their child and to provide a proper "pitch" for their motivational relationship with him. The teacher needs these objective data for planning learning experiences which motivate the pupil to work up to capacity.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the assessment techniques which schools are using in their effort to understand the individual and to assist him in understanding himself. Full discussion of the problems of intelligence testing and the progress that has been made in it is available elsewhere.[4] Various points of view have been introduced here simply to indicate that no one test or test concept has yet established itself as completely adequate. The scientist in this field is cautious in his statements: he will not conclude that a test score reliably represents a child's ability to succeed in schoolwork, or that one particular child will go far but that another has reached his ceiling. He will not pigeonhole an individual on test data alone. But he will say with confidence that psychological tests, when carefully used, provide data with established probabilities for indicating future achievement, and that, in order to get as reliable an appraisal of individual success as possible, test data should be supplemented with other techniques.

Measures of Vocational Aptitude

Educational planning at the secondary-school level must, if it is to be practical, consider ability factors other than those concerned primarily with school achievement. From school, young people go on to adult status in the community—to the tasks of proving themselves in jobs and establishing homes and families. All of these activities require self-appraisal, self-discovery, and planning.

Educational and vocational abilities are not wholly different; actually, all school subjects are likely to be useful in one or another occupation. Some subjects provide direct training for jobs; languages, for example, provide training for translating books, interpreting for government bureaus, and working in importing firms. Other subjects bear only a distant and highly generalized relation to some field of work; history, for example, has value as background for the boy who plans to go into law. Some occupations require highly specialized skills and information: the surgeon must have a precise and intensively detailed knowledge of drugs and anatomy. Other occupations require broad understandings and social rather than technical competence: the psychiatrist must know a great deal about environmental influences upon people and must be highly skilled socially in order to help a

[4] See Lee J. Cronbach, *Essentials of Psychological Testing*, Harper and Brothers, 1950; James L. Mursell, *Psychological Testing*, Longmans, Green and Co., 1947; L. M. Terman and M. Merrill, *Measuring Intelligence*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1937; David Wechsler, *The Measurement of Adult Intelligence*, Williams and Williams, 1944.

variety of troubled individuals. Job analysts have found that certain broad fields of ability relate to large groups of occupations; thus general mechanical skill opens the door to a wide variety of jobs classified as repair and construction work and ranging from overhauling motor cars to building houses and assembling rockets.[5]

Vocational planning usually begins with helping the individual to choose a broad field of work (farming, for example) and proceeds to helping him to narrow down his choice to a specific occupation (such as growing cotton) and finally to select an actual job (perhaps driving a seeder, cultivator, or mechanical picker as an employee of a cotton grower, or as a mechanic maintaining such machines). The school counselor's task is to assist the student to marshal and appraise available information describing the general abilities needed in broad fields of work. Deciding on the specific occupation, and the exact job the student wants, comes later.

Occupational Abilities

The problem of deciding what qualities a person must have in order to succeed in any particular occupation is difficult and complex. Frequently two persons of very different characteristics appear to be equally successful in the same kind of work; and yet, people frequently use such expressions as "born teacher," "natural mechanic," "perfect secretary," "typical salesman," which suggest that it is generally believed that certain unique characteristics are necessary for a specific kind of work. Scientific inquiry into this problem has come from two directions: some investigators have analyzed occupations and used these data to evolve descriptions of abilities which workers in those occupations must possess; others have sought to identify separable abilities or traits.

As an example of the first approach, one comprehensive study of occupations[6] suggests six major fields of occupational ability:

(1) *Academic Ability*: the capacity to understand and manage ideas and symbols.
(2) *Mechanical Ability*: the abilities involved in manipulating concrete objects, such as tools, and in dealing mentally with mechanical movements.
(3) *Social Intelligence*: the capacity to understand and manage people.
(4) *Clerical Ability*: the capacity to do detail work rapidly and accurately.

[5] Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 3.
[6] D. G. Paterson *et al.*, *The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales Manual*, Science Research Associates, 1941.

(5) *Musical Talent*: the ability to feel, create, and express oneself in musical performance.

(6) *Artistic Ability*: the ability to recognize and create forms of artistic merit.

The results of these investigations suggest ability patterns for several hundred occupations, and indicate a minimal level for each of these six abilities. Although some occupations have relatively equal ability requirements, most of them seem to emphasize one or two types of ability. Occupational-ability scales are therefore proposed as a necessary and helpful instrument to be used in vocational planning.

The second approach to the discovery of differential aptitudes involves the direct analysis of psychological-test data by means of a technique known as *factor analysis*. It has been found that intelligence appears to be made up of a number of "factors" or special abilities rather than a generalized mental ability. Many years ago Thorndike[7] suggested that there are probably three types of ability: abstract, mechanical, and social. Another outstanding psychologist, Thurstone,[8] applying the technique of factor analysis, isolated seven factors which he called primary mental abilities. This research resulted in the *Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities*, which measures six factors: number, verbal meaning, space, work fluency, reasoning, and memory. Other workers have isolated as many as 28 "primary" abilities. Still other investigators, however, are persuaded that intelligence is general and that the person who does one thing well will do other things well.

The experience of school counselors has indicated that most students who make high grades in one subject will be found to make high marks in others and that most students who make low grades in an academic curriculum will make low grades in a vocational curriculum. Despite this finding, however, there is substantial evidence that people vary greatly in both abilities and in interests and that these differences have important vocational implications.

Research in this field continues.[9] During World War II, the demand for efficient and rapid distribution of manpower gave tremendous impetus to development in both the psychological and the vocational approaches to the measurement of vocational aptitudes. Improved vocational definitions, job descriptions, and classification in terms of common skill requirements are now being provided. Modern multiple-factor psychological tests appear to provide reliable estimates of special aptitudes, and these special or differential aptitudes have been shown to be of use in predicting success in vari-

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[7] E. L. Thorndike, *The Measurement of Intelligence*, Teachers College Press, 1927.
[8] L. L. Thurstone, *Primary Mental Abilities*, University of Chicago Press, 1938.
[9] Max F. Baer and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information*, Science Research Associates, 1951, Chapters 7 and 8.

ous school subjects. Much more information is needed on the relationship between test scores and success in acquiring occupational skills. Research in this area is being carried on by schools and other agencies with the aim of developing techniques which will help individuals to avoid false starts and failures. This does not mean that aptitude tests have promise of being precision instruments which will mechanically predict individual success. The problem is much too complex and too many interrelationships are involved to permit the anticipation of such an outcome.

Levels of Planning

Effective personal planning during the early secondary-school years does not require definite vocational decisions; the choices to be made are curriculum choices, and each curriculum provides basic preparation for many occupations. Many authorities feel that specific occupational choice is not desirable at this stage because of the immaturity of the individual and the possibility of changes in occupational opportunities and requirements. Technological advances have increased the importance of occupational versatility, and a worker's versatility is increased by a high level of general education and a wide range of job skills and job information. This means, of course, that each student, no matter what kind of work he will eventually do, needs as much education as he is capable of acquiring and that an important concern of counselors is helping youth to succeed in their school courses. Even so, some degree of vocational choice is important in the high-school years.

The first point to consider in predicting what a person will do in the future is what he has done in the past. During the later secondary-school years, when vocational planning becomes a main concern of most students, a record of school achievement is available for analysis. School records represent the student's accomplishment in his major task, and examination of this record is the first step in appraising vocational abilities. The decision to go to college is, on this level, a vocational decision; and the abilities required for college success are indicated in the individual's record of achievement in academic subjects such as English, foreign languages, history, mathematics, and science.[10] Achievement in industrial arts and in certain beginning science courses provides clues to mechanical abilities. Similarly, achievement in introductory business courses furnishes clues to ability in business and clerical fields.

Beginning courses—in art, music, homemaking, and business, for example—offer young people a chance to discover for themselves just how well they

[10] Otto R. Bacher and George J. Berkowitz, *School Courses and Related Careers—A Vocational-Survey Plan*, Science Research Associates, 1941.

can function in a given field and how well they like it. Thus the student's record of achievement, representing his work and development over a period of several years, constitutes primary data which measure his level of success and give definite clues for understanding his capacities and interests. Such data are needed in any appraisal of vocational abilities.

Other material to be considered in this process of appraisal is the student's actual work experience—on paid jobs, during vacations or after school hours, or in the course of home duties and chores. In analyzing this experience, it is important to discover the nature of the work done, the variety of job skills and information sampled, and the degree of success and satisfaction achieved by the student. Many school counselors keep a continuous record of such activities as part of the cumulative record of the student. A special employment-history form may be used to assist the student to prepare a record of his work experiences. For some students, these activities represent only ways of earning money or of satisfying home responsibilities and have little relationship to their career interests and abilities, but for others these experiences may have greater meaning than the experiences represented by the school-achievement record. Many students find satisfaction in their jobs and develop skills at work which an analysis of their school activities will not reveal.

In many cases, work experiences are of more value in determining interests and work attitudes than they are as measures of ability. Many youth jobs require only such elemental abilities as physical strength, getting along with people, and following simple directions; and in such cases, the only worth-while information which a counselor can gain from the work record is the length of time the student remained on the job or in the line of work, and the amount he earned. Even in such cases, however, a record of promotions and ratings by employers is sometimes available and can be helpful to the counselor.

Often the work history of a pupil will reveal more genuine clues to his abilities than does his school record, and in such cases a counselor may find it very helpful to make an on-the-job analysis of the work and of the client's performance in it. For counseling purposes, of course, it is important that this be a "studying with" situation rather than merely a session for "finding out about" the student; after all, the counselor's role is to help the student obtain data on which to base his own decisions.

Hobbies and leisure activities, too, may provide information on both interests and abilities. A hobby may be defined as a free-time play activity which persists over a considerable period. Some hobbies, such as model-building, tinkering, building mechanical and electrical toys, radio building and ama-

teur ("ham") radio operating, are directly related to vocationally useful skills and information. Gardening is another hobby which may indicate definite farming and landscaping interests and abilities. Collecting stamps, advertising throwaways, books, arrow heads, catalogues, minerals, flowers, or shells provides incentive to acquire information and communication skills. Cooking, sewing, and decorating may begin as hobbies and develop into skills by which one may earn a living.

Some hobbies, of course, seem to have little educational or vocational significance—radio listening and comic-book reading, for example—and yet, even such activities may have value for an individual in that they provide satisfying, restful periods beneficial to health. Everyone needs a balanced repertory of skills and living habits, including not only those which contribute to earning a living but also those which help to make life pleasant. Visiting, dating, dancing, reading, skiing, playing ball, driving—such pursuits have an important role in providing the satisfactions which are a necessary leaven to the routine of living. For some people, even recreational activities may provide ways of earning money: coaching, caddying, life guarding are examples.

The student learns from all his experiences. When a counselor is helping a young person in his effort to discover his talents and aptitudes, it is important to examine hobbies and free-time activities as well as school achievement, work history, and test data. Free-time activities provide evidence of patterns of interest and offer valuable clues to both latent and developed abilities. Clues to a boy's interest and ability in the mechanical field, for example, may be found in a careful interview appraisal of the kinds of toys he selected in childhood and of his approach to manipulating and playing with these toys. The student who is interested in the "why" of the operation of a machine will begin early to take his toys apart in order to analyze and to redesign them.

In many instances such activities are the beginning of a definite pattern of aptitude development, and the experiences involved may form the basis of understanding of machines and skill in working with them. Other young people give early evidence that their principal interest is in being with people, in talking with them, in sharing, in persuading, and in exercising leadership, and that they have developed skills to correspond with these interests. Such patterns of early life activity—particularly activity based upon free choice—give the experienced counselor valuable clues for assessing both interests and aptitudes. In many cases the guidance worker will want to explore such clues through a carefully structured interview with the mother or, better still, with both parents. The chief point to be made in this dis-

cussion of appraisal by means of tests is that tests constitute only one kind of sampling of behavior and that, to the insightful counselor, examination of almost any kind of experience can provide clues to young people's aptitudes and preferences.

Tests for Special Aptitudes

Any of the callings which are usually considered professions require a high level of education. One must not only be graduated from college but, in many cases, must complete one or more years of graduate study as well. Not all high-school pupils who wish to enter the learned professions have educational ceilings high enough to meet these demands. It is vitally important that high-school pupils and their parents know beforehand whether going to a professional school promises them success or whether its outcome is likely to be failure and an aftermath of feelings of inadequacy and depression.

At the high-school level, the best indicators of academic promise are subject marks, achievement tests, and scholastic-aptitude tests.[11] Many colleges require for admission a B average in high-school achievement. In general, the student who averages B in high school will average C in college. Graduate schools which prepare students for such professions as law, medicine, engineering, business administration, and education usually require that candidates have superior records averaging A or B. This means, roughly, that at the high-school level the aspirant for a professional education should show evidence of great scholastic promise: high marks in basic subjects such as mathematics, science, English, history, and languages, and high scores on scholastic-aptitude and intelligence tests.

High test performance and high subject achievement usually go together —but not always, for occasionally a pupil who scores low or average on tests will make high marks in his courses. More frequently, a pupil who consistently scores well on standardized tests (the experienced counselor will never rely on one group test result) will make low marks in his courses. The causes are usually not related to ability: the pupil may lack interest, may be emotionally disturbed or fatigued, or simply may not be studying for any of a variety of reasons. (See the discussion in Chapter 5.) Nevertheless, as a general rule consistently high test performance indicates high ability.

If the test scores are high enough—around the 90th percentile, indicating an I.Q. of 120—the individual may well have aptitude for college work even though his secondary-school grades are not high. In fact, such a student is more likely to succeed in a professional school than is the student who has

[11] Albert B. Crawford and Paul S. Burnham, *Forecasting College Achievement*, Yale University Press, 1946, Chapter 4.

high marks but consistently makes low intelligence-test scores, for high marks are more likely to be the product of favorable personality factors than are high test scores. Some able students who do not apply themselves to study will make sufficiently high college grades to qualify for entrance to professional schools; but for the student of low-level abilities, the danger is that no matter how diligently he studies, he will not be able to meet the competition in professional school and in consequence will suffer painful frustration. School counselors encounter many pupils and parents who have vocational aspirations that are not justified by evidence of high scholastic ability.

It is important for counselors to emphasize the fact that high scholastic ability is necessary for anyone aspiring to enter and succeed in a profession. The fact is that this requirement either is not generally known or is ignored. Repeated surveys have shown that 50 percent of high-school pupils aspire to enter professional careers; moreover, their parents tend consistently to support, if not definitely to foster, these aspirations. Nourishing such ambitions can do serious injury to most young people, for four out of five of them will fail. Occupational statistics show that only *ten percent of the gainfully employed*—not of the total adult population—find employment in the professions. Obviously, it is unrealistic and unwise for unqualified individuals to fix their hopes upon professional careers.[12] The counselor can prevent disappointment for many students by helping them to plan their lifework intelligently—by gathering the relevant evidence, weighing it, and projecting conclusions.

This aspect of educational and vocational planning requires consideration of all the available measures of scholastic promise. For some professional fields, tests have been developed which measure specific aptitudes; some schools, for example, have music and art tests. Extensive test instruments are available in both these areas but are not widely used for several reasons: for one thing, employment opportunities in these two fields are comparatively small, and professional practice requires long training in special schools or with special instructors; again, these special schools use selection tests, and pupils desiring to take such tests can obtain them. In general, young people and their parents can rely on the judgment of public and private teachers in identifying those few individuals whose art or musical aptitudes justify professional aspirations.

Tests in such professional fields as medicine, nursing, teaching, and engineering are less well developed and are largely intended for use with college students. At the high-school level, as has been indicated, the chief criterion of promise in professional work is success in the college-preparatory course.

Tests are given widely at the secondary-school level to discover mechan-

[12] Super, *op. cit.*, Chapter 5.

ical and clerical aptitudes. Occupations requiring these abilities are numerous and offer many employment opportunities. The maturity level of high-school pupils is adequate for this kind of test, and research has developed suitable test instruments; moreover, training for these jobs may well begin in high school. Virtually all comprehensive secondary schools now offer such programs.

CLERICAL APTITUDE. Clerical aptitude has been defined in terms of ability to do clerical work.[13] The *Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales* defines clerical ability as the "ability to do rapidly and accurately detail work such as checking, measuring, classifying, computing, recording, proofreading, and similar activities." Common factors among all of these activities appear to be perceptual speed and manipulative dexterity. Beyond these aptitude factors, of course, some proficiency in language and arithmetic is necessary. Research has uncovered evidence that the motor-skill factor, manipulative dexterity, is not a particularly important requirement—that anyone with average coordination can succeed in clerical work. Perceptual speed, then, stands out as a distinguishing element in clerical aptitude.

The most commonly used test for obtaining a measure of this aptitude is the *Minnesota Clerical Test*.[14] It consists of two parts, a numbers test and a names test. The numbers test is made up of a series of pairs of numbers, in some of which the members of the pair are identical and in some different. The subject is asked to mark or check the pairs in which both members are the same. The following sample items will illustrate the pattern of the test:

8943—8934
7681—7681

Two hundred such pairs are presented. The time allowed is 8 minutes.

The names test is similar in arrangement except that names are used instead of numbers:

Safeway Stores—Safeway Stores
J. C. Winsor Co.—J. C. Winan Co.

The *Minnesota Clerical Test*, though obviously simple, places a high premium on speed and accuracy. There is evidence that clerical workers who are rated as highly successful make significantly higher scores on this test than less successful workers. In general, women make higher scores than men. The score is fairly stable and appears not to be affected by age (beyond about 16 years), training, or experience. For the pupil who is considering the

[13] Bingham, *op. cit.*, Chapter 13.
[14] D. G. Paterson *et al., The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales*, Science Research Associates, 1941.

clerical field of work and the commercial course in school, this test will provide a clue to his chances of success in the field, though it must, of course, be weighed in relation to other available information.

This test is cited as an example of an aptitude test for a specific occupational field. Comparable tests are available, but scores obtained from them have meaning only as research provides data on their relationships to external criteria, their stability, and their reliability as measuring instruments. Careful use of such tests in school can contribute to this research by showing how outside factors may influence the scores and how the objective data they provide can assist the individual in self-appraisal.

The limitation of a specific aptitude test for school guidance lies in the fact that it *is* specific: it provides no indication of the other abilities of the individual. In order to obtain data for a complete appraisal, for an answer to the pupil's request for measures of his "best" abilities, a great many such tests would have to be given. School counselors should be skilled not only in administering such tests but also in interpreting them in terms of both statistical and clinical meanings.

MECHANICAL APTITUDE. Skilled mechanical work requires a complex set of abilities. Well-standardized tests are available.[15] A mechanical worker must have motor skills, manual dexterity and coordination, and the ability to understand the scientific principles involved in the operation of a machine. He must have a keen sense of size, shape, position, and movement in order to visualize machines and their operation; in addition, he must have the proficiency in language necessary for reading blueprints and specifications, and he must be able to compute with accuracy. The skilled mechanic also has a great fund of mechanical information.

In a refined analysis, mechanical work must be distinguished from manual work, though both involve working with machines of some sort: the spade itself is a kind of machine, and its use involves manual abilities. Such abilities may be classified on a scale of motion-refinement ranging from finger dexterity through wrist and arm dexterity to gross bodily movements. Even very skillful manual workers are not necessarily efficient mechanical workers. Many highly skilled mechanical occupations require no more than average manual or manipulative abilities. A large variety of jobs which do require fine manipulative dexterity—such as operating a high-speed punch press—require little mechanical comprehension. The term *mechanical aptitude*, therefore, is misleading. Vocational psychologists and job analysts prefer to divide worker abilities and job requirements into a number of components.

Tests have been devised to measure some of these factors, among them

[15] Bingham, *op. cit.*, Chapter 10.

manual dexterity, spatial visualization, mechanical comprehension, and mechanical information. The first three are essentially aptitudes in the sense that they appear to be individual differences which are independent of training; the last is wholly a product of learning.

Well-standardized tests are available for obtaining measures of various types of manipulative dexterity.[16] The *Minnesota Rate-of-Manipulation Test* provides a reliable measure of hand and wrist dexterity. This is an individually administered test requiring the subject to pick up small disks, turn them over, and replace them on a form board. The score is the number of seconds required to complete the task. The *O'Connor Finger-Dexterity Test*, a measure of a finer kind of manual dexterity, requires the subject to pick up small metal pins, three at a time, and place them in holes in a metal plate. Another test requires that the pins be picked up with a pair of tweezers and placed in the holes. Again, the score is the time in seconds. The *Purdue Pegboard* provides separate and combined measures of arm-and-hand dexterity; placing pins in holes with each hand separately and with both hands simultaneously, and assembling pin, collar, and washer with both hands are all timed.

All these tests have been shown to have reliability for adult subjects and to have some relationship to performance in various occupations; this relationship, however, is not sufficiently high or well established to make prediction of success possible. Nevertheless, the tests are used in various ways for selecting workers in industry. School guidance specialists, however, use such tests rarely and cautiously, for although there is some evidence that certain types of dexterity can be measured at the high-school level, little is known of the stability of such measures at various ages. Perhaps the chief use that guidance workers can make of these tests is as aids in discovering an optimum type of employment for the nonacademic youth who needs a job.

SPATIAL VISUALIZATION. Analyses of many kinds of mechanical work suggest that an ability to visualize the size, shape, position, and movement of concrete objects is a common requirement.

The machine designer translates an idea into blueprints; the machinist or carpenter translates the picture into the machines; the auto mechanic visualizes the effect of one broken member upon related members—one cog wheel with teeth stripped off will prevent proper gear shifting in an automobile. Psychologists have called this ability *spatial visualization* and have designed tests to measure it. There is evidence that in childhood and early adolescence this ability is related to general intelligence, whereas in middle adolescence and in later years it appears to be a special aptitude which has

[16] Super, *op. cit.*, Chapters 6 and 7.

little relationship to academic achievement and is a poor indicator of academic promise.

The two most commonly used tests of this trait are the *Minnesota Spatial Relations Test* and the *Minnesota Paper Form Board,* both of which involve making judgments on the size, shape, and position of geometric figures. The first is an individually administered form-board test which is little used in schools because its administration requires a considerable amount of time. The second is a paper-and-pencil test which can be administered in group situations. For youths 14 years of age and older, scores are fairly stable. Occupational norms indicate that engineers, dentists, artists, tool makers, mechanics, and similar workers tend to make high scores. In schools, the test has been found useful in selecting students for specialized pre-engineering and shop courses. A high score on this test is not a good predictor of success, since many other abilities are required in these fields; but a low score is significant as a danger signal. It should be re-emphasized that this test is a measure not of mechanical aptitude but of a single component of the set of aptitudes which appear to be required for success in mechanical work, and, as such, the score from this test has a place in the test data gathered in the study of the individual student.

MECHANICAL COMPREHENSION. The third and most important component of mechanical aptitude is mechanical comprehension or reasoning. This factor is a measure of the understanding of the operation of any machine—of the application of general or abstract principles to concrete objects. The engineer begins with a function to be performed and applies scientific principles to create a machine to perform that function; for example, the problem may be to open bomb-bay doors so that bombs can be released: accordingly, a motor must be developed to turn a ratchet that swings the doors open and, by reversing, closes them. The automobile mechanic begins with the symptom of a mechanical difficulty and traces the cause; thus, it is his job to discover that the failure of a motor to accelerate is caused by the fact that distributor points are not contacting properly and to adjust them. It is true that in both these instances knowledge acquired by experience has been applied. Research has shown, however, that people with the same training and experience do differ in their ability to reason in terms of concrete objects. Because mechanical work, as distinguished from manual work, frequently demands such ability, the capacity for developing this kind of competence has often been called mechanical aptitude.

There are many ways in which to judge the amount of this capacity an individual possesses. The observation of a child's play activities provides the parent such opportunity. One child operates, uses, and watches a mechanical toy; another child takes it apart, asks questions about it, puts it back

together, and coordinates its use with that of other toys. One youngster builds with his Erector set only the illustrated models; another youngster experiments, adapts, and creates. At the high-school age, one youth merely drives his car, whereas another rebuilds his. All these activities denote differences in interests as well as in talents. Yet similar interests are found among those with varying kinds and degrees of ability. It is important that planning for an individual's future be based upon as reliable a picture of abilities as possible.

Measures of mechanical comprehension are available in several forms. The following two tests are examples.[17] The *Minnesota Mechanical Assembly Test* is a performance test requiring the subject to assemble 33 small objects from parts placed in separate boxes. No picture or description of the object is given. Scores are based on the number of successful connections made in a given time. Research indicates that skilled mechanical workers tend to make higher scores than the less skilled and that students who do well in shop courses make higher scores than those who are rated low by the shop instructor. The test yields reliable measures with junior-high-school subjects, but its reliability decreases as subjects' ages increase. Training and experience doubtlessly affect test performance. This test, though it takes much time and equipment and a skilled administrator, is useful at junior-high-school age for obtaining data related to success in shop courses.

The *Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test* is an example of a test designed for higher age levels and with a higher "ceiling" of reasoning as opposed to information. It is a picture test made up of everyday items such as airplanes, wheels, belts, pool tables, and stools. The subject is given a picture and asked a question about it. The picture supplies the information; the question concerns the outcome, a selection among alternatives, and involves reasoning with data pertaining to mechanical objects.[18] Forms of this test have been used in high-school, college, industrial, and military situations, and the evidence is fairly conclusive that individuals who make high scores on this test are very likely to be successful in technical courses and occupations. It should be emphasized that this test is a measure of aptitude for understanding a machine, not for operating it. A student may become a skilled operator without being concerned with how and why the machine works. Mechanical work at the engineering and supervising level, on the other hand, does require understanding. Data on mechanical comprehension are important for the educational planning of many students, and tests such as the one described can be used effectively in gathering such data.

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[17] *Ibid.*, Chapter 6.
[18] A primary reference work for information about any published test is Oscar K. Buros, *The Mental-Measurements Yearbook.* See latest and preceding issues.

Profile Tests of Basic Aptitudes

One recent development in the field of aptitude tests is the integrated battery of aptitude or basic-ability tests.[19] Many of the specific-aptitude tests have common disadvantages. They have been standardized on adults; moreover, because their norms are based on different groups of people, it is risky to compare one score with another: the 91st percentile on one test may be equivalent to the 63rd on another. Still another limitation of these tests is that each has relevance to only one capacity—to prospects of success in only one field—whereas guidance data must include surveys of an individual's capacities in many fields. In response to this need, several new batteries of tests have been developed which have been made possible by new research in psychological theory and test techniques. The *battery* of tests, in contrast to the specific-aptitude test, provides a profile of an individual's performance in a number of fields; the test scores are comparable, since the whole battery has been standardized on the same group of people. Several such test batteries are now being used in many schools.

The following excerpt from a report of a test performance may help to indicate the kinds of data obtained.

<div align="center">

REPORT ON TAD KILGORE

Test: *Differential Aptitude Test, Form A*

Norm: 12th-Grade Boys

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	Score	Percentile
Verbal reasoning	38	80
Numerical ability	28	65
Abstract reasoning	26	25
Space relations	48	38
Mechanical reasoning	56	85
Clerical speed	52	35
Spelling	57	45
Sentences	49	69

These data are taken from a psychometrist's report on a high-school senior who sought help in planning a junior-college program. The test battery is the *Differential Aptitude Test*. It will be noted that the tests making up the battery cover a wide range of abilities which are presumed to be based on aptitudes. The subtests are similar in purpose to several of the specific vocational tests which have been mentioned earlier; this is particularly true of the mechanical-reasoning and clerical-speed-and-accuracy tests. The verbal-reasoning test is similar to an academic or scholastic-aptitude test. Perhaps

[19] The Psychological Corporation, *The Differential Aptitude Test, Manual*, 1947.

the most important aspect of the battery is that the scores of the various component tests are comparable: thus one can say with confidence that Tad's mechanical reasoning is clearly superior both with respect to other boys in his group and with respect to his other abilities. The battery makes possible not only *interpersonal* comparisons but also *intrapersonal* comparisons among abilities.

A test of this type requires three to four hours to administer. Whole groups can be tested at one time, however, thereby reducing the cost per individual. Research has shown that different abilities are being tested and that reliability is adequate. Even though this degree of success has been achieved, much more research is needed in a variety of fields on the relationship of patterns of abilities to educational and vocational success.

Another battery of the same general type is the *Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities*. This battery yields a profile of relative performance regarding six ability factors: number, verbal meaning, space, word fluency, reasoning, and memory. These are described as basic or primary mental abilities which operate in varying degrees in all mental activities. Tentative data are available on the relationships of various patterns of abilities to different educational and vocational programs.

A test battery which is being used in many employment offices is the *General Aptitude Test Battery*, developed by the United States Employment Service. This battery yields scores which are grouped under ten aptitude factors: intelligence, verbal aptitude, numerical aptitude, spatial aptitude, form perception, clerical perception, eye-hand coordination, motor speed, finger dexterity, and manual dexterity. Norms have been developed for more than twenty occupational fields and two thousand occupations. The norms indicate whether or not the individual has to at least a minimal degree the pattern of aptitudes required for an occupation. Some high schools have made arrangements to obtain these test data for use in educational as well as vocational counseling.

Summary

Individuals differ in mental abilities. Even casual observation indicates that there are differences among persons in ability to do one particular thing, just as there are differences in each individual's ability to do different things. Students vary in their competence in arithmetic, for example; and the boy who is skillful in mathematics may be very inept in writing and in playing

the piano. Early discovery of an individual's aptitudes, capacities, or potential abilities enables him to plan intelligently for the future on the basis of his strengths. Evidence that skilled help in early discovery of abilities is needed by young people lies in the disturbing fact that almost one out of every two high-school students expresses a desire to enter a profession, yet only one in ten gainfully employed adults is practicing a profession. Counselors must help young people to realize that high scholastic ability is necessary for anyone aspiring to enter and succeed in such callings as medicine, law, nuclear physics, chemistry, and others. Counselors can help aspirants to assess realistically their abilities and their chances of worth-while achievement in professions and thereby either guide them into the most appropriate fields for their talents or steer them away from courses that are likely to lead to frustration and failure. The experience of school counselors has been that most students who make high grades in one academic subject will make high grades in others, and that most students who make low grades in an academic curriculum will make low grades in a vocational curriculum. Nevertheless, special aptitudes and interests do have implications for vocational success.

There is no one way to measure human abilities. The school counselor attempts to gather data for an individual inventory from many sources: from school achievement, work experiences, parent observations of child activities, teacher reports on special abilities, and standardized-test data. Tests are used to provide indications of scholastic abilities, clerical abilities, and mechanical aptitudes. Recently tests have been standardized in batteries which provide a profile of the relative abilities possessed by an individual as well as a basis for comparing him to others. From these ability tests, aptitudes are presumed on the basis of the relationship of the test to later scholastic or vocational performance.

No test is infallible. Results must be used cautiously, checked with research findings, and correlated with other information about the individual.

Modern multiple-factor psychological tests appear to provide reliable estimates of special aptitudes that are useful for success in school subjects; these tests, however, have not been proven to be reliable in predicting success in vocations. Research is being pushed to develop tests that will enable individuals to avoid making false starts and failures.

Two purposes are paramount in this whole process of studying individual abilities: to provide data for effective, individualized teaching; and to provide the student, through careful interpretation, with information about himself for his own use in purposeful planning. (See Chaps. 6 and 7.)

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Distinguish between achievement tests and aptitude tests. Between vocational tests and interest tests.

2. Why are some students adversely affected by a test situation?

3. How does a raw score differ from a percentile score?

4. Is an educational-development test used in your school system? How are the results used?

5. Would you agree with the theory that a single index is inadequate to indicate intelligence?

6. What vocational tests are used in your system? How are the results used?

7. Do you see a sound basis for the statement that "teachers are born"?

8. In which of the six major fields of occupational ability are the measures least adequate?

9. You are Matthew's counselor. He tells you, "Well, my dad is a doctor, my grandfather was a doctor, and my mother was a nurse; so, of course, I'll be a doctor." What tests do you advise?

10. As you examine the work-experience records of your students, what trends do you observe?

11. In your high school all seniors are given a series of vocational tests. How would you record the scores in the cumulative record?

AND PROJECTS

12. Some schools label their records *Permanent Records,* whereas some label them *Cumulative Records.* Which is more appropriate for *your* school?

13. Outline (1) a minimal and (2) a maximal testing battery for (1) an elementary school, (2) a junior high school, and (3) a senior high school..

14. What serious objection do you see to the use of rating scales?

15. How does your school find out the specific needs of youth?

16. One counselor was heard to say, "These projective techniques approach the mystical. I'm leaving them alone." What is your reaction? Or can you justify the statement?

17. What three sources or techniques have been most valuable to you in learning about the individual?

18. Prepare a case history of a student who interests you, to be discussed by the group.

19. Distinguish between counseling service and guidance service.

20. A section from a statistical report of a high-school testing program is given below. Translate these test scores into paragraph statements concerning what the tests reveal about each student. Have in mind that your frame of reference is the interpretation of the test data to the student or his parents. If you are not familiar with these tests check them in Buros' *Mental-Measurements Yearbook.*

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1. I.Q. —Intelligence Quotient
2. A.G.P. —Actual Grade Placement
3. C.G.P. —Chronological Grade Placement
4. I.G.P. —Intelligence Grade Placement
5. L.I. —Language-Intelligence Grade Placement
6. N.L.I. —Non-Language Intelligence Grade Placement
7. T.Ach.—Total Achievement
8. R.V. —Reading Vocabulary
9. R.C. —Reading Comprehension
10. T.R. —Total Reading
11. A.R. —Arithmetic Reasoning
12. A.F. —Arithmetic Fundamentals
13. T.A. —Total Arithmetic
14. Sp. —Spelling
15. Lang. —Language

Alderman, Ben

I.Q.	A.G.P.	C.G.P.	I.G.P.	L.I.	N.L.I.	T.Ach.	R.V.	R.C.	T.R.
122	8.4	8.1	11.6	9.9	13.5	8.8	9.0	7.9	8.7

A.R.	A.F.	T.A.	Sp.	Lang.
9.1	8.9	9.1	7.0	8.4

Allman, Harold

I.Q.	A.G.P.	C.G.P.	I.G.P.	L.I.	N.L.I.	T.Ach.	R.V.	R.C.	T.R.
136	8.4	8.5	13.6	11.6	14.8	10.5	10.2	10.7	10.5

A.R.	A.F.	T.A.	Sp.	Lang.
10.3	10.6	10.5	10.5	10.4

Baker, Toby

I.Q.	A.G.P.	C.G.P.	I.G.P.	L.I.	N.L.I.	T.Ach.	R.V.	R.C.	T.R.
89	8.5	8.6	11.4	10.7	12.3	7.2	6.6	6.9	6.9

A.R.	A.F.	T.A.	Sp.	Lang.
8.9	6.5	7.4	6.5	7.4

Honas, Mildred

I.Q.	A.G.P.	C.G.P.	I.G.P.	L.I.	N.L.I.	T.Ach.	R.V.	R.C.	T.R.
100	8.5	7.9	7.9	7.5	8.3	7.4	7.9	6.8	7.5

A.R.	A.F.	T.A.	Sp.	Lang.
8.3	7.0	7.7	4.9	6.9

21. The administration of a group intelligence test to all the juniors in a Midwestern high school indicates the following:

Intelligence tests show them to be a group with a wide range in abilities from borderline I.Q. to the "genius" level, the mean I.Q. being 105—five points above the mean of the general population. The group as a whole is somewhat above average, therefore, 63.5 percent rather than the expected 50 percent being above I.Q. 100. It is impossible to generalize about their potentialities for college or university work since there are wide variations in college entrance requirements, some professional schools refusing all students below the top 10 percent, others accepting from about I.Q. 115 up. Taking the latter figure, we might expect that 23.5 percent of this group has potentialities for success in university work. Again, it must be noted that 51 percent have indicated their desire to go to college.

a. What guidance problems are indicated by these findings?
b. What further data should be consulted before planning any revision of the school program?
c. Would you include such a statement in a report to the parents and the community?

22. A sample copy of a test digest is reproduced below. This digest gives essential information about the test. Note particularly the topics covered. Prepare digests similar to this for six tests in the intelligence and aptitude area.

Differential Aptitude Tests

Identification Data:

Authors: George K. Bennett, Harold G. Seashore, and Alexander G. Wesman.

Publisher: Psychological Corporation, 1947.

Form: Two forms (with the exception of the mechanical reasoning test), grades 8 to 12.

Price: $19.50 per 25 sets; $1.50 per 50 machine-scorable answer sheets; $1.25 per set of 14 scoring stencils; $1.75 per manual. $2.50 per specimen set.

Purpose: Designed for measuring eight abilities with comparable normative populations for purposes of educational and vocational guidance at the secondary-school level.

Structure: Paper and pencil. Eight tests in seven booklets. The eight separate scores are convertible to percentile ranks and can be plotted on a profile chart. Yields scores for numerical ability, verbal reasoning, mechanical reasoning, abstract reasoning, space relations, clerical speed and accuracy, and language usage (both spelling and sentences).

Administration: 186 minutes for entire battery; 25-35 minutes for each test except 6 minutes for clerical speed and accuracy test. Each of the seven parts is separately timed. May be scored by hand or IBM; separate answer sheets are necessary.

Validity: Recently published, hence there has been little time for studies of the battery's validity in relation to external criteria. The manual does provide three supplementary validation research reports, including about 2,000 coefficients accumulated in the first two years of the test's use.

Norms: The norms are based on 20,000 cases (both boys and girls) in 30 representative eastern and Midwestern communities. More extensive norms are now in preparation, such as grade norms, standardization data with reference to curricular fields, types of schools, vocational groups, and other significant variables.

Comments:

J. Consulting Psychol., 12:62, 1948: Although there are many immedi-

ate applications for tests of this type, much research is needed on the validity of profiles for predicting various sorts of educational and vocational success.

W. C. Cottell: The norms for Form A may be tentatively considered adequate, but the norms given for Form B should be used with reservation because of the small number of cases reported in that norm group. Also, the geographic distribution of the standardization group is inadequate.

D. E. Super: Preliminary evidence suggests that these tests measure a number of variables frequently found to have vocational significance. The gathering of local norms and validation against local criteria should, however, precede the use of the results of these tests for selection purposes.

General Information: The authors felt that the known significance of the abilities measured, combined with the internal evidence of validity, was significant to justify making the test available at this stage of development.

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Assessing Student Interests
and Adjustment

THE NATURE OF INTERESTS

THE NATURE OF ADJUSTMENT

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

INTERESTS AND ABILITIES are not unrelated; in general, we like to do the things we can do well, and we do well the things we like to do. Liking an activity provides strong motivation for perfecting one's skill in it. People who enjoy swimming and who find it easy for them are likely to swim often, to watch experts, to pick up methods and try them out, and to develop this aptitude to the full. There are exceptions to this rule, of course: one may enjoy golf, for example, and yet never become an expert. And, conversely, a highly skilled accountant who does a good job and earns fine pay may hate his work because it keeps him indoors poring over dull records. In general, however, the rule holds: an individual tends to apply his energy more purposefully if he finds satisfaction in the activities and associations of his task.[1]

Adults who have explored a variety of activities—and thus have had a chance to test how well they function in different jobs and discover which

[1] Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 16.

ones give them most success and pleasure—have experience on which to base decisions regarding what they can and want to do. But few people have the opportunity for such exploration; our industrial culture is so extremely varied and specialized in its work demands that the sampling process would be very wasteful if attempted by many people.

Psychological research in the field of interests indicates that the average adult has his own characteristic pattern of interests, but that people in the same occupation tend to have similar patterns of interests. Obvious examples come to mind at once: most athletic coaches like all sorts of outdoor activities; college professors of English and languages tend to enjoy art, the theater, serious novels, travel, and discussion.[2]

The interests of children are usually short-lived and changeable. Yet research indicates that there is a tendency for the patterns of young people's "liking" and "disliking" to become established generally during the secondary-school years. The average young person, by the time he reaches the age of seventeen, has developed his own characteristic pattern of interests. If he formerly built model airplanes and now spends much of his time keeping an old automobile in running condition, he is likely to spend his life as a mechanic, engineer, or builder. If he habitually reads a novel at a single sitting, often goes to movies and plays, and gets high marks on his themes, he is likely to want to become an editor or writer or teacher. On the whole, an individual's pattern of interests is a sign that points to his probable career. By reading this sign, the school guidance worker can help a student to understand the relationships of his present interests to future educational and vocational goals.

The Nature of Interests

Because interests are significant for the individual's future, it is important here to consider just what is meant by the term. Clear understanding of the concept of interest will help to clarify its implications for educational and occupational planning. An *interest* is a "tendency to become absorbed in an experience and to continue it, while an *aversion* is a tendency to turn away from it to something else. Interests and aversions are dynamic. The tendencies are there even when one is busy with other things and has no chance to indulge in them."[3]

Interests must be defined not only in terms of the *things* and *activities*

[2] E. K. Strong, Jr., *Vocational Interests of Men and Women,* Stanford University Press, 1943.
[3] Walter V. Bingham, *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing,* Harper and Brothers, 1937, p. 21.

which draw an individual's attention most strongly and give him most satisfaction but also in terms of the degree to which preoccupation with these things and activities distracts attention from competing objects of interest. "The activities in which one engages because they appeal to him are expressions of his interest."[4]

"An interest is not a separate psychological entity but merely one of several aspects of behavior. . . . An interest is an expression of satisfaction but not necessarily of efficiency."[5] Everyone has a friend who likes to go fishing but is so inexpert he usually comes home with an empty creel. Similarly, every play tryout lures young people who want desperately to act but have no talent; every football team has to be picked from large awkward squads of yearners who want to play but have no real ability. Interest and competence may fail to coincide in academic situations as well. One student, for example, may do all her assigned work in geometry and make high marks on tests but never take part in discussions or show other signs of enthusiasm for the subject. Another student may like the subject matter and devote long hours to trying to grasp it but simply lack the intellectual aptitude for geometrical reasoning. A third student, on the other hand, may have a great deal of zestful enthusiasm for the subject and real aptitude for it as well.

Interest, then, is frequently, *but not always*, associated with success. "Without interest, work is colorless and drab; with interest, work seems worth while to the individual, abilities are developed, and accomplishments are realized."[6] This statement has obvious implications for mental health. The person who says he is sick of his job may be speaking the literal truth without realizing it. Many psychosomatic illnesses are suffered by people who must work at tasks they dislike. Conversely, the man who likes his work has a chance to be truly happy. An assessment of interests can be helpful in directing an individual into a vocation which will bring him success and satisfaction.

Measures of Interest

QUESTION AND ANSWER. The simplest way to determine a person's interests is to ask him what he likes to do. The answer, however, may not always be complete or truly helpful, for it will be an expression of the interests which absorb him at the moment: it may be limited to consideration of a narrow range of activities or colored by an attempt to please the questioner and therefore not valid and exact. Yet, it has some value, for it is important

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 62.
[5] Edward K. Strong, Jr., *Vocational Interests of Men and Women*, Stanford University Press, 1943, p. 23.
[6] D. Fryer, *Measurement of Interests*, Henry Holt and Co., 1931, p. 189.

for a counselor to know what a student expresses as his interests at a given time.

MANIFEST INTEREST. An individual's interests can be discovered by analyzing his activities. When circumstances are such that one is free to choose the ways he spends his time, he will naturally occupy himself with those activities which give him most pleasure and satisfaction. During summer vacation he may like to lounge in a hammock and read mystery stories until mid-afternoon, then to go swimming with a group of friends until dinner, and in the evening to go to a drive-in movie. He may like wandering around the countryside in a station wagon, stopping now and then to make sketches, cooking his evening meal over a campfire, and listening to records until bedtime. He may enjoy making furniture in a woodworking shop all day and playing poker in the evening—except when Groucho Marx or Bob Hope is on television. When one is free to choose, his chief interests dictate his choice. He may try other activities experimentally, find that they bore him, and drop them to return to previous activities which continue to give satisfaction. It is this continuity of attention that indicates which activities interest him most deeply. The truth is, of course, that most people are not completely free to choose what they want to do; family pressures make them responsible for certain chores or force on them certain courses which lead to a specific trade or profession. However, whenever choice is possible, one tends to select those amusements and work efforts which provide him the most contentment; and these choices, over a period of time, will form a consistent pattern. The counselor who is helping a student to decide what his chief interests are will study his record in an effort to find such a pattern. Free selection of certain activities is termed an expression of *manifest interest*.

INVENTORIES OF INTEREST. A third way of studying interests is through the use of interest tests or *interest inventories*. In making an interest inventory, the counselor asks the student to react to a long, carefully stated list of activities and situations. The student is required to tell how he feels about each item—whether he likes, dislikes, or is indifferent to it; or he may be asked to indicate his preference for one item over others. In any case, the inventory results in a profile of the subject's reactions to a wide range of activities. Errors, of course, are possible; nevertheless, the inventory provides a more systematic and thorough coverage of an individual's gamut of interests than his own generalized statement can provide.

Many standardized interest inventories are available. Of the several which are credited with most reliability, because they have been developed from research extensive enough to be considered sufficient, two in common use are the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* and the *Kuder Preference Record*. The *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* was the result of pioneer work by E. K. Strong, of Stanford University. His research was focused on discover-

ing the characteristic interest patterns of successful people in various occupations. The Blank is made up of about 400 items covering occupations, school subjects, amusements, activities, and people. It has been administered to large groups of individuals who have met certain criteria of success in their trades or professions. Analysis of the results has shown that *individuals in a specific occupation tend to have a pattern of likes and dislikes which distinguishes them from individuals in other occupations.*[7] From these data, keys have been developed which make it possible to measure the similarity of a subject's responses to the typical responses of various vocational groups. Thus, a college student may react to the items in such a way that he is marked A on the key for physician, B for chemist, C for aviator, and so on for a total of about 40 occupational classifications. The A score means that his pattern of interests is *very similar* to that of successful physicians. The B score means that his pattern of interests is *somewhat similar* to that of chemists. The C score means that his pattern of interests is *not similar* to that of aviators. For the individual who is trying to decide which of several careers to prepare for, this diagnostic device may offer important clues.

The *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* is untimed and is easy to administer, but a number of practical difficulties are involved in its use. First of all, it was developed on the basis of adult responses and has not been fully standardized for use below the college level. When used with high-school seniors, it must be interpreted cautiously. Scoring, moreover, is a tedious process; although it is usually done by machine, the fact that the Blank must be scored separately for each occupational key makes the test expensive in time and effort. For guidance purposes it is perhaps most useful to the college student at the time he is considering various majors. Perhaps it is wise to emphasize here that the test is a measure of interest and *not* of ability.

Probably the most commonly used interest inventory at the secondary-school level is the *Kuder Preference Record*, which was designed and standardized for use with high-school and college students. It has been used in grades as low as the eighth, but research indicates that scores at that age are relatively unstable. The Record consists of 504 items arranged in groups of three.[8] For example:

Which of the activities below would you prefer?

A. Work mathematical puzzles.
B. Play checkers.
C. Work mechanical puzzles.

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[7] E. K. Strong, *Manual to the Vocational Interest Blank for Men.* Stanford University Press, 1945, p. 1.
[8] G. F. Kuder, *Manual to the Kuder Preference Record,* Science Research Associates, 1946.

The subject is required to indicate which of the three he likes most and which he likes least. The 504 items are classified into ten interest fields, and the scoring procedure results in a score for each of the ten fields. By reference to a table of norms, these scores are translated into percentiles; for example, an individual may have percentile scores as follows:

Mechanical	96	Literary	11
Computational	92	Musical	32
Scientific	99	Social Service	20
Persuasive	5	Clerical	71
Artistic	50	Outdoor	94

The test instrument thus provides not a single interest score but a profile of scores, and, as a result, it is possible for student and counselor to compare a subject's pattern of interests with those of other individuals; it is also possible to make comparisons among the degrees of interests which a subject shows for the variety of broad fields covered by the test. Recent research reported by Kuder shows the relationships of scores to a substantial block of occupations and a number of academic-curriculum patterns.

The *Kuder Preference Record* can be administered to groups, is not expensive, and attracts the interest of students. It is arranged for self-scoring, which is an advantage; although some errors may result, staff time is decreased and the element of self-analysis on the part of the subject is reinforced. There is evidence that responses can be influenced by a conscious effort to obtain a high score in a specific field, but this is not a serious problem if the student has a real desire to learn more about his own basic interests and their relationships to his personal plans.

Numerous other interest-sorting instruments are being used, many of which were designed for special situations and purposes. It is perhaps unfortunate that most of them are based upon occupational enterprises, for youth has many interests which are not occupational; school subjects, for example, involve many activities which have little relationship to future trade or profession.

Some recent work on study-interest inventories may eventually produce a systematic method of helping a student to choose courses and curriculums on the basis of his interest in the activities which they include rather than in terms of vocational goals, which may not be of any real immediate concern. As with aptitude tests, none of these instruments covers all the personal factors which school or vocational success demand; each considers only a single facet. When properly used, however, they provide a systematic way of helping individuals in making choices.[9]

[9] Clifford P. Froehlich and John G. Darley, *Studying Students*, Science Research Associates, 1952, Chapter 13.

The Nature of Adjustment

School guidance workers make extensive use of the concept of adjustment. They consider their role to include the task of helping students to make satisfying adjustments to school work, to social groups, and to occupations. Yet the meaning and nature of adjustment are seldom explained. The dictionary defines adjustment as an orderly relationship between parts or elements. The essence is harmony, lack of friction, a smooth give-and-take, an interaction that is satisfying to cooperating parts of a social relationship. Psychologists speak of adjustments to various situations and identify these adjustments as units of behavior or acts which are integrated or joined to meet the demands of a specific situation. These acts are both physiological and psychological. As an individual climbs a high mountain, for example, he breathes more rapidly, thus making an adjustment to two facts: that the amount of oxygen in the air is decreasing, and that the body requires more oxygen during exertion. Similarly, the individual makes adjustments to social and psychological situations. In a social situation in which status and acceptance depend partly on skill in playing bridge, the individual attempts to develop such an interest: that is, he adopts a mode of behavior which makes it easier for him to fit smoothly into the group, to interact with other individuals in a way which wins him liking and respect.

Another way of defining adjustment is to conceive of it as the reduction of frustration. When thwarted in achieving a desire or goal, an individual encounters frustration, which may be reduced either by changing the goal (adjusting to the situation by ceasing to make a demand upon it) or by finding a different method of reaching the goal (removing the obstacle to achievement).

Obviously, the process of adjusting is complex. It involves both internal and external, both personal and cultural, factors. An adjustment satisfactory to one person may not meet the demands of another; whereas the convalescent polio victim is delighted when he is able to walk again unaided, an ambitious athlete is heartsick if he fails to win a race. An adequate adjustment at one time or place may well be inadequate at another time or place: being 5 feet 5 inches tall at the age of twelve may be very satisfying; being the same height at nineteen may be very frustrating.

Both the state of being adjusted and the capacity for making adjustments must be evaluated in view of the individual's total personality and life situation. One student may be happy to have 50 cents a day for lunch and carfare; another feels bitterly deprived if he has a dollar. One student is blithe about making a C average; another has parents who look tragic if his record of A's

is marred by one B. Inner tensions and outer pressures all must be harmonized if adjustment is to be achieved; but to resolve tensions and remove pressures requires insight and guidance. Many students need help to understand their own inner demands and advice in evaluating the outer demands placed upon them, and in such situations a counselor can be of vital assistance.

Measures of Adjustment

The statement has been made that the individual inventory should contain information about what the student knows, what he can do, and what he is like as a person. The techniques and instruments thus far described are intended primarily to appraise the student's knowledge, presumed capacities, and interests. Little has been said of feelings and attitudes, which are, of course, of vital importance. Although test data yield information about the student by separate characteristics rather than as a whole, the individual always reacts as a complete organism. All activity is accompanied by thought and feeling, for the self is physical, intellectual, and emotional. The school as an institution, the teacher, the counselor, the parent, and the individual student are all concerned with the self as a whole and with the dynamic interplay of the many selves which operate in a group situation.

Psychologists find that the self can be understood only from the study of both internal and external data. Each person is only in part what he thinks he is. The individual's behavior is directed toward satisfying needs or wants, which arise in part from the concept that he has of himself and in part from an awareness of what others expect. Behavior is thus both self-directed and socially directed; only the hermit is subject to a negligible amount of external influence. Most people, however, live in family groups, and most families live in communities. Hence most people feel the pressure of opinion, feel impelled to get along with others, wish to be accepted and respected by their intimates and their associates, and are therefore responsive to the feelings of acceptance or rejection of the people who compose the society around them.

To sum up: The individual can be understood only through a synthesis of all the data about him. This synthesis is dynamic and constantly changing. Data which relate to characteristics which can be isolated—such as ability to memorize symbols, to reason, to manipulate objects, and other characteristics which tests can measure—must be interpreted within the framework of the behavior of the person as a whole. The behavior of the normal person is consistent and observations of an individual's behavior over a period of time will provide a valid basis for describing the pattern of his characteristic modes of acting. This pattern is necessary background data for the counselor who wishes to interpret a specific act of the individual.

A number of resources and techniques are available for obtaining behavioral data. An important report of basic behavior is the school record itself. For most students, it reports that the individual attends school regularly, progresses from grade to grade, and participates in certain activities; thus it reveals a pattern of behavior established by the individual.[10] Many schools supplement these basic facts with anecdotal reports by teachers, with behavior descriptions, rating scales, autobiographies, and interview records. These concern not only behavior but *feelings about* behavior. Some schools use unsigned problem checklists and attitude scales to gather information regarding problems which are common to many students. Schools which have the services of skilled psychologists may also use sociometric scales, case studies, and projective techniques for both diagnosis and treatment of individual cases.

THE INTERVIEW. The interview is the counselor's basic technique for working with individual students. It provides direct communication between counselor and client and constitutes the primary means for clarifying, synthesizing, and interpreting to a student all the data concerning him.[11] Since the interview is a means both of learning about an individual and of working with him, it has been treated in the chapters dealing with the counseling process.

ANECDOTAL REPORTS. An anecdotal report is simply a written record of an observed bit of behavior. The report is written by the observer, usually a teacher, and filed as a part of the cumulative record. A series of such reports made by several observers over a period of time provides information on the way in which the individual usually meets a situation. Reports of behavior in typical situations are important, as are those describing how the individual reacted in a novel or unusual situation.[12] The report should identify the situation and describe objectively what the individual did and said. Description is important; opinion or interpretation should be either avoided or separated from the behavior description. Some schools use small printed cards with lines separating the identification of the student, a word picture of the incident, and the interpretation. The following example illustrates the form:

Date: 11/15/49

Name: Mary Jones
Setting: Social Studies, current-events day. Students volunteer reports on news events of the past week which have interested them.

[10] Arthur E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance,* Harper and Brothers, 1945, Chapter 12.
[11] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor,* Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 2.
[12] Jane Warters, *Techniques of Counseling,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954, Chapter 6.

Incident: Mary sat quietly in her front seat during the first brief reports. She had a neatly clipped magazine section on her desk. As the volunteers dwindled in number, she held up her hand. I called on her immediately, as this was her first contribution. She read a review, apparently written in advance, of an article on a new treatment for colds. Her face was flushed and her voice was low, but everyone listened carefully. When she finished, she was asked a number of questions, and she answered them, smiling and seeming to be pleased.

Interpretation: Mary has always done excellent paper work, but has never before volunteered to present something to the class. Perhaps she has finally gained enough confidence in herself to participate in activities of the group.

Some schools encourage teachers to observe and to report periodically on children who have shown evidence of difficulty in adjusting. Other schools ask for reports of unusual behavior which seems of special significance. At the secondary-school level, teachers are often asked to report on unusual talents evidenced by students and on outstanding contributions in classroom situations; however, anecdotal records will be of greater value if they describe students' problem situations as well as their successes. Such reporting provides a very different kind of teacher comment from the judgmental and largely negative conduct reports common in the past.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTIONS. The systematic behavior description is an outgrowth of the use of anecdotes or incident descriptions and of rating scales. Several approaches are in use. Basically, the behavior description is the result of observation of child behavior in terms of a set of carefully stated characteristics and of periodic reporting in terms of the evidence. The form prepared by the American Council on Education lists seven behavioral characteristics and defines levels for each. The seven are: responsibility, creativeness, influence, adjustability, concern for others, serious purpose, and emotional stability.[18] The levels for adjustability are given below to indicate the precision of definition that is used in an effort to reduce loose generalization and point up the need for evidence.

ADJUSTABILITY

Secure: Appears to feel secure in his social relationships and is accepted by the group.

Uncertain: Appears to have some anxiety about his social relationships although he is accepted by the group.

Neutral: Shows the desire to have an established place in the group but is, in general, treated with indifference.

[18] John W. M. Rothney and Bert A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student,* Dryden Press, 1949, Appendix II.

Withdrawn: Withdraws from others to an extent that prevents his being a fully accepted member of the group.

Not Accepted: Has characteristics of person or behavior that prevent his being an accepted member of his group.

Reports made by several observers over a period of time not only provide valuable data for guidance purposes but also help teachers to become more skilled observers of individual behavior. The method is essentially subjective, but the use of the carefully phrased descriptive statements, if they are fully understood, adds to the reliability of the data. The inclusive nature of the characteristics evaluated also justifies the use of subjective methods. Objectivity can be increased by combining the use of incident description or evidence reporting with the qualified judgments. It would be interesting and valuable to have such reports made by parents from time to time.

Behavior descriptions appear to be used at present largely in connection with special case studies of individuals who are having difficulty in making adjustments. General use of the technique for the study of all children would contribute to a more positive approach to furthering the adjustment of all, as well as to the earlier discovery of those who need special help.

The following behavior description is an example of a report prepared by a guidance worker who has observed a teen-age boy's conduct in a class. The report furnishes a vivid description of the student's mannerisms and of his relations with teachers and peers; it contains an interpretation of the behavior observed and a summation of the insights gained. Such behavior descriptions can be of real value to everyone concerned with guiding the student.

Date of Observation: 1/16/54
Child Observed: Arthur
Adults Present: Classroom instructor and myself.
Other Children Present: Class of approximately 24 juniors.

General Situation
The observation took place in a biology class at eight in the morning at Harper School. I observed the subject from the time he entered the classroom until the 50-minute period was over. The class meeting was a general lecture-discussion type and the subject was the human metabolic process. I am known by the boys in the class and my presence was not specifically an irregularity—thus the subject had little, if any, idea that he was being observed. I chose Arthur because he is one of the smallest boys in his living group, exhibits extremely diffuse activity and generally extroverted behavior.

Appearance of Child
A. Height 5' 2"
    Weight 130

B. Secondary sex characteristics: slightly pigmented facial hair.
C. Facial appearance: (1) no scars, etc.; (2) brown hair, heavy eyebrows, blue-gray eyes, smooth fair skin; (3) masculine features, but a roundness of face.
D. Grooming: Subject extremely neat and clean. Hair carefully combed. No apparent odors. Was wearing blue jeans, patterned sox, short blue jacket and blue keds.
E. No discernible permanent handicaps.

Observed Behavior

Arthur came bounding into the classroom, and when a passing glance told him the instructor had not arrived, he proceeded to draw a crude caricature of his teacher, to whom he ascribed a chalked mouthing of "Well fellows. . . ." Several of his classmates said, "Yeah, let's go, go, go, Anderson! You're really great! Keep up the good work!"

Arthur turned around, left his artistic pursuit and then noticed me in the rear of the room. Several of the boys snickered, perhaps thinking Arthur would be embarrassed at finding me in the room. However, Arthur gave no indication save a smile, and he came back to me tossing and catching (with apparent ease and coordination) an orange which he had with him. He asked me, smiling broadly, if I were going to study biology. I had time to answer only, "Yes," when the instructor entered and called for attention, and Arthur took his seat. The place he chose was quite isolated from the main group of students in the room. He sat immediately next to only one boy.

The teacher assigned a two-minute oral report for the next day. Arthur queried, "How long would it take if it were written out?" The teacher replied he couldn't say, and Arthur's comment seemed to call forth a note of disapproval from his classmates.

Next Arthur consulted his watch—three minutes had elapsed since the class had begun.

During the hesitant recitation of a classmate, Arthur half-raised his arm and turned to comment to his only neighbor from whom he received no retort. He looked somewhat nervously from student to student and then to the teacher, seemingly anxious to provide the answer. Finally the teacher acknowledged him. Arthur gave the correct answer in a very matter-of-fact way.

Arthur sat in his chair slumped down on his spine and leaning back with his arms folded before him. (Incidentally, I found the seats very uncomfortable.)

Arthur listened attentively to the discussion and lecture for the most part. He often offered his hand as a sign that he knew the answer to posed questions and ignored the other boys in the class who were often blissfully unaware of the lecture and were whispering, etc.

Arthur constantly shifted. I came to realize in the course of the period

that this was perpetual motion. First a foot jiggled, then he pulled at his jeans in the crotch, rubbed his chin, shifted positions, put his feet on the desk in front of him, then a foot on the chair, one on the floor.

He vigorously volunteered for three or four more questions, to which he gave immediate and correct answers. (This was many more than any other member offered.)

Again, chair up—chair back, sat straight in seat—slumped down, rubbed his face, put head down, whispered to neighbor, again consulted watch. All of these things were done only briefly and he seemed—through all of his antics—to maintain a continuity of interest in subject matter.

Then one of his classmates gave a halting, incorrect answer, and Arthur frowned and vigorously stretched his arm high with a force that raised him out of his slump into a straight sitting position. He was acknowledged; he gave the answer; it was wrong; he slumped in his seat again and consulted his watch once more.

Then, head in hand, he leaned with elbow on desk next to him—then on other elbow on his own desk.

Move, squirm, shift—then he scratched the back of his neck.

He turned around quickly—seemingly having forgotten I was around. He smiled and winked.

The bell rang and the class poured out. Arthur waited in his seat, apparently in no hurry to go. He sat for a moment, rubbing his legs, then darted up to question the teacher further about the assignment, then he turned to others who were leaving and started to offer his comments on how he intended to do the assignment. He was virtually ignored by boys leaving.

Walking with a couple of the boys, Arthur was engrossed in talking as he left the room and, with his hands busily engaged in describing some detail to his seemingly uninterested audience, he disappeared from view.

Interpretation of Observation

Arthur's relatively small stature and childish look belie his actual developmental stage. He is 15 years, 8 months of age. He is in the later puberty period. . . . He wore the same type of clothing as the other students—jeans, jacket, etc.—so his apparent rejection by the other boys seemingly is not on a socioeconomic basis.

When one considers the social development of Arthur—in respect to his peers—one sees some lacks in skill. He takes the initiative in social contact in that he made the effort after the class period to mix and offer comment to the group. He has little tact, as evidenced in the observation, and is seemingly ignored by his peers; and at times he is not only ignored but rebuffed. The rejection by his peers does not *seem* to be a depressing factor to Arthur. Rather, he, in turn, seems to ignore his peers and their reactions and proceeds as if everyone were truly interested in his activities. One could almost be sure that this seeming blindness to the open rejection of his peers is in itself a defense. One could even hazard the guess that his own

aggressive actions might be a compensatory mechanism due to feelings of inadequacy because of his relatively small size. Arthur's actions at the end of the period were not unlike those of the proverbial "banty rooster." The buoyant, energetic and enthusiastic attitude Arthur exhibits suggests that if he is conscious of rejection by his peers it is being somewhat compensated for. Perhaps the satisfaction of adult acceptance by his teacher (and others) for his excellent work as a student helps in fulfilling some of his need for the approval which could be coming from his peer group.

There was no opportunity to observe Arthur's interest in the opposite sex.

His role with his peers seems to be far from fully established. He is openly rejected by the bulk of his classmates—which is probably much better than being completely ignored! He is regarded as obnoxious and childish, and of course being intent upon studying and production of correct answers in class wouldn't make him the one voted most popular in a school where scholarship doesn't seem to carry high prestige value.

From the ease with which Arthur talked to his instructor and to me one would guess that his social development with adults has progressed more rapidly than that with his peers. It is not difficult to find an appropriate rationale for this, since Arthur seems to be good-looking, neat, polite, good-humored, and is an eager student. These are the qualities which many adults—parents and teachers—find most desirable in fifteen-year-olds.

If one is to consider the extreme "jitterbuggish" actions of Arthur (and most other adolescents!) as an evidence of strain or tension, one can see that he might well be operating under a considerable handicap. The shifting and exertion in class might be accounted for in part by the discomforting seats or lack of interest in the subject offered, but basically one might also infer that Arthur's actions are the expressions of self-consciousness and its resulting tensions. Perhaps concern over his smallness in relation to the group in itself would cause him great concern. I read into his actions an anxiety about his size. Perhaps he feels that he will grow and is depending upon the increase in body stature to carry with it some of the prestige and approval which perhaps he feels he needs. One can almost hear him saying, ". . . I know I'll grow! I hope!"

At present he seems to be relying upon childish tricks—loud, reckless attention-getting devices—to let his peers know he is about. He is attempting to make a big noise. He is being rejected. One might assume that if he does have a growth spurt that the assurance of bodily skills will relieve him from some of the feelings of self-consciousness and inadequacy which he harbors at present. If, however, he should remain the "shorty" he is now, he will have a more difficult problem with which to come to terms. There remains that "ideal American man" standard of the brawny, rugged male which Arthur and his classmates often use for a criterion of worth.

Arthur seems to have an excellent chance to hurdle any threat of inappropriate adjustment. He has a fine sense of humor and even the most aloof

of his disapproving peers become amused at times with his antics. He seems to have a high level of intelligence, and from his rather inventive adjustive techniques now exhibited one would assume that he will meet the future with adequate equipment. The next year or two will be vital years in Arthur's life; should he remain so noticeably short, one would not risk a prediction of the effect it could have on his general personality development.

To summarize: (1) A late developer. (2) Finds approval in intellectual achievements. (3) Socially immature in relation to peers. It is very important to add that my own observation of Arthur accents the importance of his "late development." Actually, this is not necessarily the correct assumption. Perhaps Arthur is, now, rather fully developed physically and his small stature has biased my report. The "late development" is more applicable to his social skills and may be entirely inappropriate in reference to his physical development.

RATING SCALES. Many schools use short rating scales for reporting observations on personal characteristics. Typical are ratings on such traits as cooperativeness, participation in class activities, effort, attention, and conduct. These are usually reported in addition to an achievement mark for the subject or grade; for example, a report to parents might include such items as:[14]

	Excellent	Superior	Average	Poor	Very Poor
Cooperation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Study Habits	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

The best rating scale is one which defines both the characteristic and the qualitative scale points in terms which permit the sifting of evidence in making a judgment. Thus a rating scale for the two characteristics above might be constructed as follows:

		EVIDENCE
	Leader of group, assists teacher	_____
	Works well with group and teacher	_____
Cooperation	Usually cooperative	_____
	Sometimes obstructs group	_____
	Rebellious in class	_____
	Very efficient, disciplined	_____
	Fairly efficient, some supervision	_____
Study Habits	Average, requires supervision	_____
	Easily distracted, little skill	_____
	Refuses to study	_____

The rating scale probably requires less time than any other technique and enables a busy teacher to report to some extent on a large number of

[14] Froehlich and Darley, *op. cit.*, Chapter 5.

students. At their best, ratings by several teachers provide useful clues to behavior characteristics; frequently, however, they are greatly contaminated by achievement results and by teacher-pupil relationships; they should therefore always be used cautiously and checked against more objective data.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY. The autobiography is frequently used as a device for getting "inside self" information about a student. It is not simply a record of what one has done but is in many cases a report of how one feels about himself and his role; in these cases it is a self-portrait in which the subject selects what he wants to tell. It may reveal feelings and attitudes which make actual behavior more meaningful.[15]

Several cautions must be observed in interpreting autobiographical data. In the first place, the setting in which the story is written must be considered. If it is, for example, an assignment in an English class, the student may be far more concerned about the quality of the writing than about the content. If the autobiography is to be used for guidance and self-study, this purpose must be made clear and must be acceptable to the subject. In other words, the autobiography must be prepared in a situation in which the subject sees no threat and feels free to express his feelings. He cannot be asked to testify against himself.

An outline is often a help, even with college students. In most cases, better results are obtained if a topical outline is provided as a guide to structure. Such an outline might include:

Identification data:
    Family members
    Your place in the family
    Family relationships
    Homes
    Moves
    Friends
    Family occupations and recreations
Schooling:
    Progress in elementary years
    Remembered teachers
    Friends
    Achievements and problems
    High school majors
    Course achievements
    Activities
    Subjects liked and disliked
    Aspirations

[15] Warters, *op. cit.*, Chapter 11.

Employment:
>   Chronology of jobs
>   Duties
>   Promotions
>   Reactions

Present plans, aspirations, and problems:
>   Immediate educational goal
>   Occupation-goal
>   Plans for reaching goal
>   Problems and difficulties
>   Philosophy of life

At both elementary- and secondary-school levels, the school years may well be used as the organizational structure of the autobiography. It is advisable to make clear that what is wanted is not a mere chronology of events but an expression of satisfactions, problems, and the effects of events.

Since the autobiography is a self-report, it may be deceptive for both conscious and unconscious reasons, and it must be interpreted accordingly. Many of the facts it contains can, of course, be checked against the data in the school record. If the student is cooperative, obscure or ambiguous points can be further clarified by means of an interview.

The following autobiography of a high-school boy was written without a topical outline as a guide. It is sketchy and fragmentary, but even so it reveals a great deal that is of interest about the student.

> Ronald Locke
> English II
> Mr. McMinn

My Story

As far back as I remember it started out tough. This is how it began: I was in the second grade. When I left for school that morning I knew that the day wasn't going to be right. It began with a tow-headed boy named Bill. He was in the same grade I was. He was sitting on a wooden bench with his hand up on the back of it it just happened that he had his finger in a crack of the bench. I casually walked up to it not knowing the circumstances and began shaking it rapidly I heard a loud shrill from my friend I stopped shaking the bench to see what happened. His fingernail was torn out from my shaking it. Naturally it wasn't my fault and yet I felt bad about it. Then came noontime everybody evacuated the room including the teacher. I came back at 1 o'clock as usual. When I walked in there were two very good looking policemen, the principal, and the teacher waiting for me. The whole idea was that I was to have taken a large sum of money from the teachers purse.

Well the money of which I was suppose to have taken was made up by my dad. I failed the second grade that year. I knew I hadn't taken there stupid money but they didn't. I started to work when I was seven years of age. At that time I was selling Colliers magazine. From there I delivered the Advance, until I delivered the Call-Bulletin after carrying that paper for a year I became street captain for the Call-Bulletin in San Dimas from there, at the age of 13, I went to the Times. I now have a paper route at 4:30 AM.

I also have a job working at the P.A. Theater.

The End.

In contrast to this limited yet revealing autobiography is the following self-history, which was based upon a careful outline and filled out in rich detail.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF TED CHALMERS

The first of my ancestors to reach America arrived on the Mayflower, according to the story which has come down in the family. Other ancestors reached American shores in the mid-1800's. The first group were of English-Irish background; the second were Swedish. This was on my father's side of the family.

On my mother's side, my ancestors were also English-Irish plus Scandinavian. Grandma Thomson, the English-Irish half, came to California from Missouri in a covered wagon in 1890. In her background are soldiers who fought for the North and the South in the War between the States.

From these two families came Mom and Dad. They were married on the Fourth of July, 1931. The Depression was in full swing in '31 and was still going strong in '34 when I was born.

My first home was at the Glenn Valley Golf Club, outside the town of Linwood, California, in a house Dad built. Of my life here, I remember little, but some events do trickle back through the years. I remember poison oak and the calamine lotion that accompanies it. I remember beating a neighbor boy's head on a red tile walk. I remember a doll, turned bee's nest, that had me in bumps for days, and I remember my first real desire—to play the violin like the neighbor girl.

On April 16, 1940, my sixth birthday, Mom came home from the hospital with a squalling little bundle of humanity, my sister, Bernice.

In the summer of 1940, we moved to Enes Tract, near Pittsburg, so Dad could be nearer his work. I started school there. About the only incident that floats across twelve years is connected with my first-grade class. For some reason, another boy and I got into a fight in class. We were sent to "Old Froglegs," the principal, and he gave us a good talking to.

In '41, we moved to Linton, where I went through the measles, mumps and chicken-pox stage. While we were living there, my brother Robert was born. That summer, we visited my grandmother in Bremerton, Washing-

ton. What a time we had! We all had intestinal flu, and the day before we left home, I smashed my thumb with a hammer!

After a year in Linton, we moved back close to Father's work and lived in a government housing project, "Los Lomitos." There I had my first real pal, John Ward. We went everywhere together; to school, to play, and when it came time to enlist, we were Cub Scouts together. At this stage my social life grew by leaps and little jumps. I had my weekly Cub meeting; I started violin lessons and joined the school orchestra; and I got into more fights every day. As I coasted along in the life of the gay sophisticate, the United States was fighting a War, but it wasn't too evident to me until late one night in '43. My Mother, Dad, and I were sitting in a movie in Pittsburg. It was a war picture, "Burma Surgeon"; so when a low rumble sounded through the movie house, I thought nothing about it; but then a few seconds later the whole building shook and the ceiling plaster began to fall. We were in the back row of the theater, so we left when we saw other people leaving their seats and coming up the aisle. Dad asked a boy outside what had happened. The boy pointed straight in the direction of Dad's plant and said, "There was a great blue flash over there. I think Shell Chemical blew up." We jumped in the car and soon pulled up in front of the plant. It was all right except for 5,000 broken windows. Mom and I rushed home and found everything in a shambles. The westward-facing windows were blown into the rooms and shattered. The blinds, window casing and window in my room were piled in the closet. Luckily, my brother and sister were sleeping in a bedroom on the opposite side of the house from the direction of the explosion. Two ammunition ships, one fully loaded, had blown up not ten miles away. Parts of bodies of people were taken from the bay for days, and they never knew how many were killed. That was because so many deserted. One man, driving to the scene, saw a man running toward him along the highway. He stopped the runner and asked him where he was going. He said, "I'm going back to Alabama, man, and I ain't stoppin' till I get there."

Dad got a promotion to assistant chief engineer of the plant, and with the job came a staff house. It was the nicest house we have ever had. All good things must end. So did our shot at luxury. In 1944, my family moved from the luxury of the Shell Point staff house to the most God-forsaken spot on the face of the United States. This little "Garden of Eden" is situated 60 miles north of Amarillo, in the Tex Panhandle, and is named Cactus Ordinance Works (COW). . . . At first landing in Amarillo, it was the answer to all my dreams. We were picked up and "carried" to the Plant. Every mile of low rolling hills in the first ten miles outside of town there was something new and exciting. After we crossed the dry Canadian River, Texas, Oklahoma and everything clear to the North Pole stretched out before us. At last we reached the plant, and my heart sank with a thud. The housing project was a group of low-lying, unpainted, square

buildings. They were just as dirty as they looked. Each house was a square about 75 feet on a side; then it was cut into four sections by walls. One family occupied each section. Ours had three bedrooms, a bathroom with a tin shower stall, a living room and kitchen with a two foot square gas stove. There was one outside door and skylights for light and ventilation in the bathroom and kitchen. From this exquisite environment I started to become a fledgling Texan. In this little community, most of the laborers were Texans. I went on round-ups at the nearby ranches. I hunted ducks in the buffalo wallow, and I was soaked to the skin in five seconds by Texas northers. However, my initiation was completed one day by playing football. The playground of our school stretched clear to Montana (it seemed) and it was so flat that nothing was done to clear a field. I was thrown a pass. I jumped for it, but in doing so I lost my balance and landed square in the middle of a prickly-pear cactus. I went home and screamed while Mom pulled each one out with tweezers, leaving a blister around each hole.

During the summer of 1945, I attended an academy in a small town in New Mexico in order to catch up with Texas schools. I remember Sister Veronica, who was in charge of the boarding boys—I was one of three. She was a wonderful person and lots of fun. When we sat around the dinner table with the girls, the language spoken was Spanish because most of the other children were Mexican. Therefore, I learned Spanish in self-defense.

I returned to COW for school in 1945, and at last was settled. Then the rumors about the war ending started everyone wondering where we might be transferred to next. In August, a single bomb exploded over Hiroshima and sixty percent of the city simply disappeared. Three days later, a second A-bomb was dropped over Nagasaki, and Japan fell. We were transferred to San Francisco—hooray! So we bade a fond farewell to Cactus and waved to the natives sadly singing their song of farewell, "Deep in the Heart of Texas." Good-by Texas, forever!

We found a home in Fruitdale, south of Oakland. I joined the school choir, and I was a member of the school orchestra. When one is in the seventh grade, everyone asks who they "like." It never made much difference to me, because baseball and many other things interested me. The fatal day came to me, as it comes to all—the first downfall. The Community Center of the village had a dance every Friday for the young people, and everyone went, regardless! I would just stand around and talk to the guys when some of them weren't dancing. At long last, they decided to teach me the gentle art of "toe mashing" and Linda Mays was my teacher. It seems that while my lesson was in progress—it took all evening—another boy was looking on with white-hot jealousy. He was madly in love (as thirteen-year-olds are mad) with Linda. At last he challenged me to a fight. I won, and in doing so I had my first girl, whether I wanted her or not.

Then I went through a reckless stage; so reckless I was on the hospital's emergency operating table three times in two months with a knife wound,

five stitches worth, a ripped knee cap and a split head. Mom had to run things because Dad was gone on a construction job. One day she came home, and she was white as a sheet. She told me that she had been walking down the main street when she saw a newspaper headline reading "5,000 Killed in Texas Blast." The explosion was in Texas City, about eighteen miles from where Dad was. We got a telegram next day from Dad saying that he was all right. Did I say "Good-by Texas, forever?" Well, call me a liar and pass the suitcase. Dad came home for us and we left for Houston.

I started Junior High, joined the choir; and next year I had a couple of solos. I also joined the orchestra, and later became concert-master. At this school they have quite a discipline system. If you do something wrong, a coach bends you over and applies a board where it does the most good.

At last, Dad's job in Texas was over, so we were sent home to San Francisco. When I first saw Van Duzen High, at the beginning of my sophomore year, I was greatly impressed by its size. I liked Van Duzen and I got along fine except in sports. The only position I could make was manager. I have five manager's blocks. I joined the choir as soon as I could and have had a lot of fun there. Now, I am manager of the choir and assistant director.

I have known some pretty odd people, but the mother of one of my girl friends, Jane Bailey, takes the "booby" prize. I went over to Jane's house one day, and she was sitting dejectedly on the porch. Her mother had locked her out and she was cold. She had leaned on the doorbell, but that had done no good. There was a willow tree right by Jane's window; so I climbed up and in and got Jane a coat, then walked through the house and out the front door. Mrs. Bailey told me, "You had better get out, because I called the police and told them there was someone prowling around my house." I didn't believe her, but Jane and I went across the street to her friend's house. Before long, two police cars drove up. The police jumped out of the cars and looked all around and one talked to Mrs. Bailey. She gave them my general description, and soon one of the police came back with a boy about my size and took him to her. About then I thought it was a good time to leave, but a policeman noticed me, and took me to Mrs. Bailey. She said she had never seen me before. After that, the police left, and Mrs. Bailey invited us all in for a milk shake. She thought it was all a good joke.

The second summer we were in Van Duzen (1950), I auditioned for Peninsula Youth Productions, which is a youth organization that puts on operettas. The first year, we did "The Mikado," and last year we did "Robin Hood."

In my high-school career, there is one man who impressed (and depressed) me more than any one else. He is the person for whom I have done more work, spent more time, and received less credit than from any other person. This teacher not only has influenced my ideas the most, but

has given me more ideas of things of a little higher grace. I have listened to him so much that I can almost tell what he will say before he says it, especially his comeback to a crack. I have drawn cartoons of him, written poetry about him, and even told him to go to the devil; all to no avail except for my being thrown out of class five times and flunking a six weeks period for class insubordination. But, these three years and some 600 hours of classroom torture have been of great personal advancement to me, and I feel that this teacher has taught me more than anyone since I began my schooling.

After graduation in June, I intend to get a job and work as a laborer during the summer, do an operetta, and go to junior college in September. I hope that an aptitude test will help guide me to courses of study and a line of work for which I have the most ability. My ambition is for two years of study at junior college and then two years at the University—Uncle Sam permitting.

The value of an autobiography may be seriously limited by the student's inability to communicate in writing. Even when it is full of detail, however, it must be interpreted within the context of all other data about the individual, and it must be handled confidentially and professionally.

PROBLEMS CHECK LIST. It is important, in planning and evaluating guidance services, to have information on the common problems of students. Such information can be discovered (1) by making a survey of problems of individuals in a group, or obtaining an adequate sampling of the problems of members of a group, in order to determine which problems occur frequently; (2) by questioning staff members, individually or in conference, about the problems that occur frequently among students; and (3) by asking a student committee to list problems that they know occur frequently among their classmates.[16]

Several standardized problems check lists—simple questionnaires made up of briefly stated problems classified into categories—are available for use. The *Mooney Problems Check List*, for example, contains 330 items, covering the following eleven areas:

> Health and physical development
> Finances, living conditions, and employment
> Social and recreational activities
> Courtship, sex, and marriage
> Social-psychological relations
> Morals and religion
> Home and family
> The future, educational and vocational

[16] Froehlich and Darley, *op. cit.*, Chapter 14.

> Adjustment to school work
> Curriculum and teaching procedures
> Personal-psychological relations

Mooney states that his purpose was to develop a simple technique by which students could be encouraged to express the comprehensive range of their personal problems. The items were gleaned largely from the free writings of students.

On the *Mooney Problems Check List*, the subject marks each item which he believes to be a problem for him. The items checked may be classified under the categories or simply totaled as specific problems. The check list can be used with an individual subject who is genuinely interested in understanding himself; but, used in this way, the instrument is susceptible to misrepresentation and deception since the items are transparent and direct. It can also be used unsigned and unidentified to obtain data on the problems of a group; in fact, a number of schools have administered the check list to the whole student body. Such a process provides data which are likely to be reliable, since the individual is not threatened by the possibility of revealing information about himself which may cause him embarrassment.

The *Mooney Problems Check List* has potential value for interpreting individual data obtained in other ways as well as for the discovery of problems common to a group. The research data provided with the instrument are scanty and would add little to local interpretation. Administering such an instrument to students, faculty, and parents in a school community may provide significant data for understanding individual problems as well as for school and community planning.

Another instrument of this type is the *Science Research Associates Youth Inventory*. Items on this inventory are classified under the following headings:

> My school
> After high school
> About myself
> Getting along with others
> My home and family
> Boy meets girl
> Things in general

Little research is available on this instrument, but it appears to be similar in purpose and use to the Mooney. For individual use, both must be cautiously interpreted and should be administered only after consideration of the effects on mental hygiene of such introspection. As instruments for discovering and understanding common problems, these and similar techniques have real value.

ADJUSTMENT TESTS AND INVENTORIES. Many attempts have been made to develop personality tests and adjustment inventories that provide valid and reliable measures of personal adjustment. Tests have been constructed which provide much insight into the dynamics of behavior, but their results thus far indicate that the most valuable of these instruments require individual administration and interpretation by a competent psychologist.[17]

Paper-and-pencil tests of this type have, for many reasons, been much less successful than paper-and-pencil tests measuring achievement and aptitude. It has been difficult to isolate specific factors to be measured. Subjects are loath, moreover, to answer questions which concern intimate and frequently painful personal relationships. Furthermore, it has been difficult to establish criteria against which to compare and validate both whole and part scores. Even where the best rapport has been established, it is doubtful that the conscious response to an item really represents the way the subject would feel and act if the situation were real. And yet, despite all these acknowledged limitations, such instruments, if properly used, have value in the school situation. They are considered to be safe for three purposes: (1) as a screening device, (2) for identifying specific problems, and (3) as a stimulus for initiating discussion of personality development.

Adjustment tests and inventories are useful as screening devices for *early identification* of individual students who may need help. Used in this way, these instruments can also provide data on common problems in the student group. After a whole group has been given one of these tests, those individuals who make extreme scores can be invited to come in for consultation. These instruments should not be self-scored, nor should the results be revealed in group situations, for too much danger exists that students will misinterpret results. Many schools administer an adjustment inventory with other tests as a matter of routine and report the data only to counselors and other trained people.

After a teacher or counselor has established rapport with a student—has achieved a truly warm and permissive relationship—an adjustment test or inventory may be used for identifying specific problems and problem areas. Under favorable conditions, the result may be a behavior pattern of useful reliability. If the pattern is verified by observation and by data from other sources, subsequent counseling and environmental action will have a definite goal toward which to work.

Some skilled teachers and other group workers use a personality questionnaire as a method of giving impetus to discussion of personality development. In many schools, group discussions of this nature are valuable learn-

[17] Theodore L. Torgerson and Georgia Sachs Adams, *Measurement and Evaluation*, Dryden Press, 1954, Chapter 8.

ing experiences which not only make possible release of tension but also provide information on how to meet personal problems. In such cases, the instrument is usually not scored at all, or only parts are scored and reported. Attention is given to responses to specific items rather than to test scores. Interviewers frequently use adjustment inventories as a basis for the interview, inviting the client to raise questions or discuss further specific items. All these uses minimize the dangers of attempting to derive an oversimplified quantitative measure of something as complex and difficult to define as human personality.

As examples of adjustment inventories, three instruments in common use are described below.

The *Bell Adjustment Inventory* is designed to provide a measure of adjustment in four areas: home, health, social, and emotional. It is a questionnaire composed of 140 items to be answered *yes, no,* or ?. The items are simply phrased questions, such as "Does criticism disturb you greatly?" and "Do you daydream frequently?" This inventory requires about 30 minutes to answer and can be scored quickly. By reference to a table of norms, the score is converted to a descriptive statement ranging in five steps from "excellent" to "very unsatisfactory." The published norms are based on a relatively small number of cases and should be supplemented by local norms. Forms are available for high-school students, college students, and adults. Research indicates that, under normal conditions, this instrument will differentiate reliably between well-adjusted and poorly adjusted groups. In the hands of a skilled counselor, it may be used also for the discovery of students who have severe problems and for obtaining information on problem areas of the individual.

The *California Test of Personality* is a similar instrument, designed to measure degree of personal and social adjustment. Forms are available for five levels: primary, elementary, intermediate, secondary, and adult. Divisions of the test yield scores on self- and social adjustment. Each division is broken into six areas. The *Self-Adjustment* division of the test, for example, has these six components:

> Self-reliance
> Sense of personal worth
> Sense of personal freedom
> Feeling of belonging
> Feeling from withdrawing tendencies
> Feeling from nervous symptoms

Some norms are provided with this test for interpreting scores. Research reports on this instrument are conflicting: some studies indicate that the test has aided in discovering children needing help and has provided clues of

diagnostic significance; other studies, however, report that the test fails to distinguish between good and poor adjustment and does not provide reliable diagnostic clues. It is probably true that the test does not measure as much as its title suggests.

A much more elaborate instrument is the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory*.[18] Designed for use by a trained psychometrist, it is the outgrowth of long experimentation on the development of a single test which will provide scores on all the more important factors of personality. Although it was originally prepared as an individual test, it is now available for group administration. This inventory provides scales designed to assess various aspects of personality. Among these scales are measures of feeling in the following areas: bodily function, depressive feelings, hysteria, masculinity-femininity, paranoia, and schizophrenia. Certain scales are used to detect uncertainty, irrationality, and deception in the total response. This is a long test, consisting of 566 items which are to be answered "True," "False," or "Cannot say." Many research data are available for use in interpretation. There is evidence that when this inventory is used properly it will detect serious emotional disorders. The psychologist uses it as a supplement to psychiatric diagnosis; schools may find it useful for early detection of children who should be referred for special treatment.

SOCIOMETRIC DEVICES. Group status and group influence strongly affect individual adjustment. The sociogram, or sociometric chart, is a very useful tool for diagnosing the relationships within a group. Pioneer work in sociometric techniques was done by J. L. Moreno, and this work was further advanced and made available to teachers by the Center for Intergroup Education at the University of Chicago.[19]

Every group of children, whether pupils in primary grades or teen-agers in high schools, is composed of subgroups, of cliques of friends clustered about popular leaders, of individuals who are merely tolerated on the fringe of cliques, and of lonely persons who are isolated and rejected. How well a student is able to work and how happy he is may depend considerably on the liking or dislike, on the respect or disfavor, with which he is regarded by his fellows.

The sociogram is a sensitive instrument for mapping the social structuring of a group. A sensitive tool is needed because the status of an individual in a class is not an obvious or easy relationship to determine by observation. In fact, teachers are often shocked to discover from a sociometric chart which

[18] Super, *op. cit.*, Chapter 19.
[19] See Helen Hall Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations*, American Council on Education, 1952, and Hilda Taba *et al.*, *Intergroup Education in Public Schools*, American Council on Education, 1952.

students are the popular leaders in a class and which are the isolated and rejected members. The criteria of teachers and parents often differ from those of young people, who have their own means of assessing one another and whose choices reflect the hates and loves, the affections, loyalties, and animosities at work within the group. A sociogram is of especial value as a diagnostic device for guidance effort in that it spotlights the individuals who are ignored or actively rejected by the others. Such children are often beset with emotional problems and can be helped once they are identified.

The method of preparing a sociogram, briefly described, is as follows: The teacher passes out slips of paper to the members of the class and asks each pupil to write his own name and *the names of his three best friends*. (The basis for selection will vary, of course, in accordance with the need the sociogram is to serve.) She may tell the class that she wants this information so that she can seat friends next to each other; and because it may not be possible to give everyone his first choice of seatmate, she wants each child to list second choice and third choice as well. It is important for the teacher to carry out any such agreement she makes with the group so that the pretext she uses for asking for choices is never revealed as merely an excuse; it is necessary for choices to be sincere and valid. In some cases, the teacher may also ask the pupils to indicate the person with whom they would prefer *not* to sit. This device, however, is objected to by many teachers, who feel that it is a negative approach and who wish to encourage young people to be receptive to sitting next to anyone in their group. On the basis of the children's choices, the teacher prepares a plot, or sociogram, which shows who names whom.

The graph may be made in the form of a seating chart with lines indicating friends. When completed, the sociogram reveals who are the much-chosen individuals—the popular leaders about whom cliques have formed. Also shown are mutual choices, one-way friendships, boy-and-girl friendships, and the individuals on the fringe whom no one has chosen.

Variations in the identification question may help to reveal the causes of acceptance or rejection. For example, such questions as "Whom would you like to help you with arithmetic?" and "Whom would you choose on your team?" and "Whom would you invite to a party at your home?" all postulate a standard for choice, and the resulting selections serve to reveal which individuals are successful or failing according to the specific criterion employed.

The sociogram may furnish data which can be of very real help to the teacher both in group guidance (see Chapter 15) and in individual guidance. The story of Mickey Morris provides an example.

Mickey seemed to be a particularly unfortunate nine-year-old. He was small for his age; his father was dead, and his mother had remarried to a

much older man, who was on relief. His mother was too overworked and tired to dress and feed Mickey well or to regulate his habits. Often he stayed out late at night. He had smoked since he was four. On several occasions he had stolen a bicycle. Already he had a reputation as a near-delinquent. He was a little ragamuffin, hopeless, despondent, of little significance in the other children's eyes. And that hurt. The teacher got a clue to the hurt when she happened to ask him what he wanted to be when he grew up. "A big-shot," he said instantly.

In free painting he made a mass of purple color on a large sheet of paper and in it centered some black bars; he moodily called it a jail. The teacher felt that he had projected his feelings about himself into that murky, unhappy painting.

The teacher made a sociogram of the class. Mickey was nobody's first choice, or second or third choice. Mickey himself had named Leigh as his first choice; Leigh was the most-chosen boy in the class. The teacher saw a possibility and took advantage of it: she seated Mickey next to Leigh. Privately, she told Leigh about Mickey's problems and asked Leigh to befriend Mickey. Leigh, an outgoing, obliging boy, made a pal of Mickey. The fact that Mickey worshipped him as a hero helped, of course. Leigh's warm friendship gave Mickey worth in the eyes of Leigh's group of followers, of those who wished that they were in Leigh's clique, and of those who were Leigh's rivals. In addition, the teacher worked to give Mickey status. She gave him every possible chance to shine in class and gave him affection, too—a frequent smile, a pat on the shoulder, a word of praise whenever he earned it. Gradually she started entrusting responsibilities to him. She made him chairman of a committee, eventually, and he did a good job.

Mickey glowed under it all; he had a shining rebirth. Inevitably he grew in stature in the eyes of his classmates, and when the next class election was held, Mickey—with Leigh pushing for him—was elected class president. He had succeeded: the lonely ragamufflin was now a big-shot.

Individuals vary greatly in the degree and quality of acceptance which they require in order to feel secure. Few people, however, can develop sound mental health in a situation in which they feel rejected. Techniques, therefore, which help a teacher to discover such situations and to take steps toward ameliorating them have a very real importance. Such help is needed oftener than many teachers realize. It is natural for an instructor to think that the child who never causes trouble, who always has his work done on time and done well, is a happy, adjusted individual; but frequently the quiet, bookish pupil is precisely the one who has no status in the group, who is ignored or made fun of by the other children and needs help to win a place among his peers. The sociogram, by revealing the rejected individuals in the child society, directs the teacher's attention to those who need guidance.

The sociogram has other uses. By the choices which an individual makes —by indicating with which of his classmates he wishes to align himself—he can reveal his aspirations, the roles in which he sees himself but in which his peers do not see him. Mickey, in the case described above, was the under-privileged little outcast who wanted to be buddies with the most popular, the most powerful, the most sought-after boy in the room. Mickey did not align himself with the smartest pupil in the group, or with the best athlete, but with the most *popular:* group approval was his great desire. With help, he earned the status he needed.

The case of Andy Tober also illustrates the use of a sociogram as one of a group of techniques for helping a troubled individual overcome an emotional problem. In this case, the teacher was a member of a child-study group, to which she brought the situation for discussion. The group studied the problem with her and guided her in the process of helping Andy.

Nine-year-old Andy never played with boys, only with his younger sisters. Most children disliked him. He was a bright youngster with a hungry, curious mind. Though he was in the fourth grade, he could read at a high sixth-grade level. He would pore over the pages of the encyclopedia, gathering information on a topic like astronomy, and enjoy it. And he could lecture to the class on a subject such as submarines or jet-assisted take-off— but in a vocabulary so technical and precocious that it was over the other children's heads.

Andy was gifted at reading, but he could not write at all. He could not even print. He had a block against writing so firm that he couldn't overcome it. "I can't write, so don't ask me to," he would plead with the teacher. "I can't, I just can't!"

The teacher visited his home and talked to his father and stepmother. Andy was left-handed, and the teacher discovered that his stepmother (a strong-minded woman) had tried to get him to write with his right hand. When Andy would revert to using his left, the stepmother slapped that hand and urged him vehemently, "No, Andy, not that hand. Use the *nice* hand!" The result was that Andy couldn't write with either hand.

The teacher discussed Andy's troubles with the other members of her child-study group, and it was the consensus that she must not pressure Andy—that he faced not merely a problem of learning to write but a big problem of social adjustment. They helped her plan a long-range campaign.

At school, the teacher urged Andy to write in whatever way came naturally to him—with his left hand, if that were easier. But Andy insisted, "I can't, I just can't!" Otherwise, he did his classwork well; usually he finished assignments long before the other pupils and would sit gazing at nothing, preoccupied. He would reach into the air and grasp at things unseen by the teacher. When she asked what he was doing, he would look startled and say, "Why, nothing." And when she said she saw him grasp

at something in the air, his answer was, "Oh, I thought I saw a shadow." Or he would grin self-consciously and put his hands behind his back. At recess, instead of going out to play with the other children, he would stay in and talk with her. He would tell startling stories of danger, of flight from people chasing him.

"Andy," she said finally, "you've got such a good imagination. Why don't you write these stories down for me?"

"I can't write. You know that!"

Part of the teacher's campaign to help him was to have the class discuss human-relations topics: individual differences among people; how it felt to be handicapped in any of a variety of ways. Gradually she got the class to "identify" with Andy and to acquire a better attitude toward him. They drew him into games on the playground. He played with *boys*. Slowly he acquired some athletic skills and lost some of his nervousness as he gained a measure of confidence and self-respect. As the other children grew to like him better, they developed some respect for his academic ability.

As a next step, the teacher charted a sociogram of the class and regrouped the pupils; she seated Andy near one of the popular leaders and privately asked this boy to befriend Andy. The boy did so, cooperating well; he made a close chum of Andy.

This achievement was a crucial step; it brought Andy into the inner circle of an important clique. The teacher's carefully planned program bore fruit in that the isolated boy, who had been rejected and ignored, now became one of the fortunate and secure members of the group who really "belonged." Andy's morale zoomed; he felt a confidence and well-being that he had never known before.

At the next teacher-parent conference period, the mother remarked that Andy seemed to be liking school now—liking it so much, in fact, that she was very curious to learn what had happened. The teacher explained what she had been doing and her reasons for the steps she had taken. The mother was thoughtful—and challenged. She saw the implications of considering feelings, attitudes, and relationships in both home and school learning.

Only a little more urging by the teacher was necessary to get Andy started writing class assignments. At first, he had to print them—with painful effort; but gradually he improved and began actually writing his work. Before the year was over, he was writing with almost normal facility. The block to his achievement had finally been removed.

The sociogram can furnish data which can be of real help to the teacher and the class. Some teachers feel that it is important to separate cronies so that they will not distract each other in class but will attend to the business of studying. Experience has shown, however, that seating pupils according to their choice of friends results, in many cases, in a quieter, happier, more goal-directed class in which more good work is accomplished.

The sociometric technique can be varied by asking different types of questions in initiating the process. Thus a "Guess who—" question may be used, such as: "A is the best dancer in the class. Who is A?" and "X is the most fun on a camping trip. Who is X?" This device will reveal different roles played by individuals.

Repeated sociograms serve an evaluative function. A second sociogram, prepared some weeks or months after the first, will reveal changes and new alignments in the cliques and clusterings of the class, giving evidence of success or failure in a teacher's efforts to bring an isolated pupil into the inner circle of a group or to solve problems of relationships between cliques. Sociometric devices can be employed at all age levels, and the resulting data are useful to the counselor, too, in working with individuals.

PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES. One criticism that can be made of many of the foregoing techniques of studying the individual is that they lack depth; their results in many cases represent only "skin-deep" characteristics. They report how a person acts in a limited number of situations, how he *says* he acts in other situations, how his observable actions compare with the observable actions of other people. Furthermore, adjustment and personality tests and inventories are largely transparent instruments—the intelligent student sees through them and is able to control his responses so as to present the picture of self that he wishes to present. This is also true of the data from anecdotal reports and autobiographies. They may reveal but little of the dynamics of the inner world of the subject. Yet the real purpose of individual study is to understand the whole self—to help the individual to be understood and to understand himself. To achieve this purpose, the counselor must have keen sensitivity to human drives and feelings as well as to overt actions and abilities.

The term *projective* is used to describe methods and techniques which provide rich opportunities to observe and gather data on the inner world of the subject. These methods involve situations which arouse responses that are a projection of self—of motives and personality attributes which are usually hidden. The subject himself is often unaware of the impulses and needs which a projective test may reveal. Everyone has had the experience of hearing several observers describe what they see in a cloud formation; from the same observation point, the visual stimuli are identical, but in many instances each person sees different shapes, colors, and movements. The sound of the wind at night, too, has different meanings for different people. The assumption on which projective techniques are based is that the differences originate within the person and are projected into the situation.[20]

Many devices can be used to evoke projective responses. Under condi-

[20] Harold H. Anderson and Gladys L. Anderson, *Projective Techniques*, Prentice-Hall, 1951, Chapters 1-2.

tions of good rapport and freedom for self-expression, the autobiography may be highly projective: the color and emphasis, the very selection of detail mentioned, all reflect the individual's strongest feelings evoked by the situation. Both written compositions and freehand drawing contain elements of projection. Sometimes a finger painting, by its overwhelmingly emphatic, flaring reds or its somber, murky purples may indicate abiding moods. The games children play—of parents punishing a child, of a gang pursuing and falling upon a fugitive, of defiant encounters with policemen and firemen— are all revealing. Even the stories which parents tell children at bedtime reflect the inner life of the narrator. In this respect, most spontaneous, unstudied or unrehearsed activity reveals feelings.

In order to perceive and understand the differences which people exhibit in response to a stimulus, it is necessary to control and limit the arousing situation. The typical projective-test procedure is to present a somewhat ambiguous stimulus—a picture, a word, an object, a story that suggests a variety of alternatives for solution—and urge the subject to respond as he chooses. The constant elements in the situation are the stimulus and the freedom to react spontaneously. Experience with such instruments indicates that the results are suggestive of personality structure and dynamics, for there is nothing, actually, that is sharply definite in the stimulus—the response from the subject is determined by what the subject himself reads into the stimulus. In telling what he sees in the situation, the subject is projecting himself. The tendency to see the same thing in a number of ambiguous pictures is interpreted as an indication of self-identification with the theme.

The difficulties in the general use of such tests are many. Administration and score procedures are elaborate and complex, for interpretation is based on many inferences and sets of standards. Extensive background in psychological theory and intensive training with each specific instrument are required for competence in their use. For these reasons the projective tests are usually restricted in use to the psychological clinics, and the results are always supplemented with other data.

The two best known instruments of this type are the *Rorschach Test* and the *Thematic Apperception Test*. The former consists of a series of ten ink blots, each a seemingly haphazard sprawl of shaded black and white upon a large card. Five of the blots have varied degrees of coloring. They are ambiguous in structure, actually picturing nothing at all, yet seeming to resemble something elusively familiar. The subject is shown a card and simply asked to say what he sees in it. He may take as much time as he wishes and give as many responses as he desires; and what he says he sees in the way of form, color, movement, symbolism, interrelationship, and detail is recorded

verbatim. From this record, scores are derived for a number of personality factors by means of a mixture of normative data and clinical intuition. A high degree of experience, knowledge, and sensitivity is required of the interpreter. The result is a personality description which has been shown to correlate with psychiatric diagnosis; when interpreted by a competent person, its validity is considered to be high. The Rorschach Test is, therefore, much respected. At the present time, it is definitely a clinical instrument both in administration and interpretation. It is occasionally used by well-trained school psychologists to obtain new clues and to supplement other data, but its general use in the school, particularly with normal subjects and children, awaits further research.[21]

The *Thematic Apperception Test* is another distinctly clinical device. It consists of a series of cards, on each of which is a picture of people in poses that suggest drama. No real clue as to the relationships of the people is indicated. The subject is asked to tell a story about each picture—that is, he reads into the picture whatever situation comes to his mind; he projects drama into the picture. The results are not so much a description of personality structure and organization as a statement of personality content, needs, aspirations, pressures, and conflicts. The test is scored by references to normative data based largely on the responses of college students. The examiner also analyzes the series of stories given by the subject for recurrence of themes—for evidence of self-identification with specific kinds of people or situations. Like the *Rorschach*, the *Thematic Apperception Test* is an instrument for use only by experienced and well-trained psychologists. Both tests show promise of obtaining data which go beyond the description of behavior to an understanding of causal factors and relationships. Both have stimulated exploration of new and dynamic ways of studying personality.

Psychologists connected with the armed services have made much use of situation tests with projective components in the identification of men fitted for responsible positions. Reports on the selection of men for hazardous missions to work with resistance movements in enemy territory tell of putting trainees in situations in which their spontaneous behavior revealed how stable they were, how quick they were to think and act, how much self-control and discretion they possessed.

Teachers and counselors report that *role-playing* has value as a diagnostic device in the classroom. The types of roles with which pupils tend to identify, the feelings and ideas they project into these roles, the ways in which they seek to solve problems—all these may provide helpful clues to tensions and conflicts. Impetus to role-playing may be provided by reading an unfinished story to the group and then asking individuals to take the roles of

[21] *Ibid.*, Chapters 4 and 5.

characters in the story and act out an ending.[22] Sometimes, instead of having pupils act out a conclusion, everyone in the class is asked to write an ending to the story. Occasionally, of course, the offered ending may be an echo of a movie or a radio story recently seen; for the most part, however, the spontaneously offered story solutions truly reflect identification and deep inner feeling.

Projective techniques dramatize the trend toward the study of the individual as a dynamic, active whole rather than as a set of traits. Following exploration of individual characteristics, the psychologist and the clinical counselor can return, by means of projective techniques, with greater objectivity to the view that each child is a unique personality with an intrinsic drive toward self-adjustment and fulfillment.

Projective techniques are still in process of development and evaluation. They have demonstrated usefulness in the clinical situation in the hands of well-trained workers. They are, it may be said, helpful tools for craftsmen, but they are not yet at such a stage of development that they can be generally employed by teachers and beginning counselors.[23]

Summary

An individual applies his energy most purposefully and productively if he finds satisfaction in the activities and associations of a task—that is, if he is truly *interested* in it. Psychological findings indicate that the average adult possesses a pattern of interests which is characteristic of him as a person and that people in the same occupation tend to have similar patterns of interests. Research shows, too, that young people's feelings of "liking" and "disliking" tend to become established during the secondary-school years and to form patterns of interests that suggest probable careers. By discovering the pattern of a pupil's interests, a counselor can help him to understand the relationships of his present interests to future educational and vocational goals.

The counselor learns a client's interests in various ways: (1) by questioning him as to his preferences, (2) by analyzing his activities (everyone, to the extent to which choice is permitted him, chooses those activities which interest him most), and (3) by giving the client a test or interest inventory. The *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* is an example of such an inventory.

[22] George and Fannie Shaftel, *Role-Playing the Problem Story*, National Conference of Christians and Jews, Inc., 1953.
[23] Super, *op. cit.*, Chapter 19.

A client's reactions to this inventory provide a means of measuring the similarity of his interests to the typical pattern of interests of different vocational groups; the resulting score may indicate, for example, that the client has a pattern of responses very similar to that of successful physicians or chemists or aviators. Such an assessment can help an individual to decide between alternative vocations. The *Kuder Preference Record* is the most commonly used inventory of this type at the secondary-school level. Most interest-sorting instruments are based upon occupations, which is unfortunate, for youth has many interests which are not vocational.

Adjustment is defined in a variety of ways; perhaps the most significant features to distinguish are harmony, absence of frustration, and smooth interacting with people. Adjustment may be thought of as both physiological and psychological, and the process of adjustment must be thought of as having both personal and cultural referents: adjustment for an individual involves reducing inner tensions and harmonizing outer pressures. Very often this task is one that requires not only insight but guidance—that is, the help of a counselor who must know the client as a person and inform himself about his character and his relationships. A number of resources and techniques are available for obtaining behavioral data: the school record itself, anecdotal behavior descriptions, interviews, autobiographies, problem check lists and attitude scales, case studies, sociometric techniques, and projective techniques.

Adjustment tests and inventories are especially helpful as screening devices for early identification of individual pupils who need help; in addition, these instruments provide data on problems common in the pupil group. Many instruments have been developed to assist counselors in this task, but at their present stage of development they should be used cautiously.

A very useful tool for diagnosing the relationships within a group is the sociogram or sociometric chart. It is of special value for quickly discovering the individuals in a group who are ignored or actively rejected by the others. Once they are discovered, the teacher can take steps to help them to win some measure of status and acceptance within the group.

Projective techniques have unique value in aiding the trained worker to gather data on young people's inner feelings. Among the projective instruments and procedures in common use are the writing of autobiographies, finger painting, *Rorschach Test*, the *Thematic Apperception Test*, dramatic play, and role-playing. Most of these devices should be employed only by teachers or guidance workers who have had adequate training in their use. Utilized by competent workers, they are valuable diagnostic and remedial tools.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. One school system asked all teachers to rate each of their ninth-grade students on a 5-point scale on a characteristic identified as "adjustment." The results gave the following picture of the group:

Superior	6 percent	Fair	19 percent
Very good	25 percent	Poor	4 percent
Average	45 percent		

What does research indicate as to the reliability and validity of such ratings? Is the skewness found here in the expected direction?

2. *a.* Prepare a rating scale for the use of teachers on a characteristic such as study habits. Use five gradation points, and define each point in operational terms.

b. Prepare a similar scale for a characteristic entitled "emotional stability in the classroom."

c. Which of these two scales would you expect teachers to be able to use most reliably? Cite evidence which justifies your answer.

3. One school reports the following data concerning the living conditions of the entire student body:

About three-fourths of the group (73 percent) are living in homes with both parents.

14.5 percent are with the mother only, whereas

1.5 percent live with the father alone.

For 5.5 percent of the group, society has had to find some placement with other than relatives.

17 percent are "only children";

AND PROJECTS

32 percent come from families with two children;

23 percent from families with three children;

17 percent come from families with five or more children.

a. Is this a typical group?

b. What kinds of guidance problems are suggested by these findings?

c. Can you suggest any special school activities or services which should be developed for meeting the anticipated needs of different subgroups?

4. "What do you want to be when you grow up?" Boys in our culture are asked to respond to this question almost from the time they learn to talk. Trace the successive changes in vocational interest which you yourself have experienced, beginning as far back as you can remember. Is any general trend indicated?

a. Does your own experience follow the fantasy-tentative-realistic pattern which Eli Ginzberg reports in his book entitled *Occupational Choice?*

b. What factors can you recall which influenced your changes in interest?

c. What role did school experience and personalities play?

d. How significant was your early work experience?

e. At what point did knowledge of your abilities enter into the shaping and delimiting of your interests?

5. Most of the published interest inventories are heavily weighted with occupational interests. What other areas and kinds of interests are important for the teacher and counselor in the elementary and junior high schools?

6. Prepare ten items for a study-interest inventory for use in the seventh and eighth grades. Select items which pertain to your own teaching field.

7. Compare the usefulness of an interest inventory with a 30-minute interview in which the student is invited to talk freely about the things that interest him.

8. How would you interpret the results of an interest inventory to the parents of a tenth grade boy? Structure an interview of this type. After you have given the parent the essential findings from the test instrument, what specific responses would you want to obtain from him?

9. Many boys indicate interest in engineering who do not have the abilities usually associated with success in this field. How would you handle this problem in a counseling interview?

10. A boy of sixteen plans to study engineering but shows no interest in the scientific, mechanical, or technical areas in an interest inventory. Would you consider this a serious deterrent to his realizing his aspirations? Justify your answer.

11. Hector, a big, raw-boned, 18-year-old high-school senior, is having a routine interview with his counselor to discuss post-graduation plans. Hector lives on the outskirts of a district served by a large consolidated high school. His father is an Italian blacksmith and part-time farmer. Hector is a fairly quiet boy; he never attends school dances. He tells the counselor that he plans to go into his father's line of work. A large number of test scores are available for the boy as a result of a research project.

Test	P.R.	Norms
High School Rank	68	
ACE	92	Coll. Fr.
S-B I.Q.	142	I.Q.
Minn. Clerical		
Names	40	Cler. Wkrs.
Numbers	56	Cler. Wkrs.

Nelson-Denny	42	Coll. Fr.
Coop. Mathematics	28	Coll. Sr.
Coop. Social Studies	39	Coll. Fr.
Coop. Nat. Science	31	Coll. Sr.
Engr.-Phy. Sci. Aptitude	38	Engr. Soph.
O'Rourke	99	Men in Gen.
Paper Form Board	96	Coll. Fr.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank

I.	Psychologist	B
	Physician	B+
	Dentist	A
II.	Mathematician	B
	Engineer	A
	Chemist	B+
IV.	Aviator	B+
	Farmer	A
	Carpenter	A
	Math.-Sci. teacher	B—
V.	Personnel manager	C
	Y.M.C.A. secretary	C
VIII.	Accountant	B—
	Office worker	C
IX.	Sales manager	C
	Real-estate salesman	C
X.	Advertising manager	C
	Lawyer	B+
	Author-Journalist	B
	Interest-Maturity	26

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MMPI T-Scores

K	54	Mf	61
Hs	52	Pa	62
D	68	Pt	75
Hy	55	Sc	72
Pd	46	Ma	50

On the basis of these data, using legitimate inferences where necessary, answer the following questions:

(1) The aptitude and achievement data suggest that Hector apparently—
(a) is an under-achiever.
(b) is mechanically adept but poor in theoretical areas.
(c) would do well as a blacksmith or farmer but should be encouraged to attend trade school first.
(d) ought to go to college.
(e) (both a and b).
(f) (both a and d).
(g) (both b and c).

(2) The *Strong* indicates—
(a) very broad interests.
(b) significantly higher standing in Group IV than in any other.
(c) equal probability of satisfaction as dentist, engineer, or carpenter.
(d) equal probability of satisfaction as physician, chemist, and lawyer.
(e) high probability most of the present interests will change due to low I-M score.
(f) (all of these).
(g) (none of these).
(h) (both a and e).

(3) Study of the MMPI reveals that probably Hector is—
(a) immature, naive, unrealistic, anxious to appear in a socially-acceptable light.

(*b*) irresponsible, independent, self-centered, impulsive.
(*c*) worrisome, tense, self-conscious, insecure.
(*d*) shy, sensitive, a day-dreamer, an isolate.
(*e*) (all of these).
(*f*) (none of these).
(*g*) (both *a* and *b*).
(*h*) (both *c* and *d*).

(4) To which of the following hypotheses may we attach some probability on the basis of all we know of Hector?
(*a*) His vocational plans are partly attributable to close family ties.
(*b*) His failure to consider further academic training is partly due to under-valuation of himself.
(*c*) He will probably never function very effectively until he receives some real psychotherapy.
(*d*) Some of his difficulties may well be due to rejection by the mother and consequent over-identification with the father.
(*e*) Absence of Group III or VI scores may be due partly to social mal-adjustment.
(*f*) (All of these.)
(*g*) (All but *c* and *d*.)
(*h*) (All but *d*.)

(5) The counselor should *probably*—
(*a*) encourage Hector to attend college.
(*b*) talk to the boy's parents.
(*c*) talk to Hector about his personality adjustment.
(*d*) encourage Hector to try trade school or on-the-job training.
(*e*) leave Hector alone.
(*f*) (all but *a* and *e*).
(*g*) (all but *d* and *e*).
(*h*) (all but *c*, *d*, and *e*).

(6) The counselor should also probably—
(a) give Hector some manual dexterity tests.
(b) give him a *Rorschach* and a *T.A.T.*
(c) get some better norms for his tests.
(d) recheck the I.Q. by giving a *Wechsler-Bellevue*.
(e) check the *Strong* results with a *Kuder* before proceeding.
(f) have the school physician check the boy's physical condition.
(g) (all of these).
(h) (none of these).

(7) It seems that Hector—
(a) probably hasn't found school very challenging or stimulating.
(b) might profit from some remedial reading work.
(c) isn't very well-suited to clerical activities.
(d) probably enjoys being out-of-doors.
(e) (all of these).

(8) Suppose the counseling process leads Hector to aspire to a college degree, but his parents are unable to help financially. The counselor should then probably—
(a) give the boy some of his own money.
(b) try to get him a scholarship.
(c) encourage him to go anyway with the idea of working his way through.
(d) suggest he give up the idea.
(e) give the parents a lecture in the hope that it will lead them to take more interest in the boy.
(f) (the first three of these things).
(g) (both *b* and *c*).
(h) (all but *a*).

(9) This case illustrates the point that—
(a) students like Hector should receive careful counseling before the senior year.
(b) personality and interest tests often help to clarify each other.

(c) aptitude test scores are not likely to be valid when the subject has a personality problem.

(d) (both a and b).

(e) (all of these).

(10) This case reminds us that—

(a) it is very difficult to counsel without considerable nontest data.

(b) good counseling is needed to reduce social waste.

(c) intellectual capacity is the most essential single test factor in counseling at junior and senior high-school levels.

(d) (all of these).

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Part Three

THE DISTRIBUTIVE

FUNCTION OF GUIDANCE

· 11 ·

Occupational Information

IN THE TRIAD of vocational education—guidance, training, and placement—the guidance program must be given top priority. Provision must be made to assist each individual to take maximal advantage of the many educational experiences provided by the school. Essentially, the guidance program must help each individual to plan purposefully, and this implies that each student must be enabled to understand his own abilities, interests, and opportunities, and to plan an education in harmony with them. In order to carry out these functions, four basic services must be provided:

1. *Continuous study of the abilities, interests, achievements, and development of each individual.* For this purpose, schools maintain cumulative records extending throughout the school life of the individual, provide testing programs and exploratory experiences, and analyze all phases of individual adjustment. (See Chapters 9 and 10.)

2. *Continuous study of opportunities for youth experience in the community and for youth's entry into the world of work.* Such a program involves community surveys, collection and study of published data on occupational

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distribution and trends, contacts with employers and parents, and coordination with many community, state, and federal agencies.

3. *Individual counseling services*. This is perhaps the most important element of the guidance program. Through the counseling process, the individual is helped to interpret facts and feelings, to develop purposeful plans, and to maintain personal equilibrium in the growth process.

4. *Techniques for assisting youth to make the shift from school to full-time participation in the world of work.* This phase of the individual-adjustment program is slighted in many schools. When adequately developed, it includes a well-coordinated placement and follow-up service.

This chapter is intended to emphasize the importance and to clarify the content of the occupational-information program; it will deal with nationwide occupational trends, will illustrate these trends with data on the state and local levels, and will present sources for gathering and methods of preparing such materials for school use.

American society places a high value on economic participation; and for every young person in our society, finding a lifework in which he is happy and effective amounts to achieving a basic adjustment.[1] The teacher-counselor who undertakes seriously his task of helping youth to achieve this occupational adjustment will never know his field completely, for the task is one which requires continuous study, continuous investigation of the secondary data available on the printed page, and continuous exploration of the primary data obtained through observation of men at work around him.

When they leave school or college, most American youth go to work. Most of them go outside the home to work; many, of course, leave their own community to seek employment, entering a labor market which has, in recent years, become increasingly specialized and increasingly remote from home activities. The occupational world is a highly complex structure. Yet it need not be a complete mystery to the young job seeker, for during the last twenty years social scientists have analyzed and clarified the world of work to the extent that a vast library of information is now available. The job seeker who makes the effort to become informed knows in advance the types of occupations that offer opportunity, the kinds of information and skills each requires, the conditions of work, the social and material returns that can be expected, and the kinds of training and experience that the beginning worker should possess. He is able, therefore, to plan his education in terms of his increased understanding of himself and the types of jobs or professions for which he is in some measure fitted.

[1] Donald E. Super, *The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment*, Harper and Brothers, 1942, Chapters 1-2.

More than 40,000 occupations have been identified and defined.[2] Through casual observation and informal experience, some young people become acquainted with a few out of this vast array of jobs. But it is the exceptional student who acquires even a slight knowledge of several dozen occupations. The traditional pattern of entering the family occupation, or being trained in the home for a job, is no longer adequate and has been largely abandoned. Entrance into the labor market without preparation, on the other hand, is a wasteful and in many cases frustrating experience. More and more of the responsibility for inducting young people into trades and professions has been transferred to the school. Meeting this responsibility requires a clear understanding of the task and a planned program. President Robert Sproul, of the University of California, in an address to an all-faculty conference, clearly expressed this educational goal.

> Putting first things first: What should the State expect of its educational system or systems, from the nursery school right up through University Extension? I believe there will be general agreement that the welfare of a society is strongly affected by the success it achieves in fitting the work that must be done to the individual who must do it. The trick is to produce a situation where each person works up to the top of his potential ability, and continues to raise that top higher and higher all his life. Education should be concerned, therefore, with providing experiences which will enable young people to learn about the different kinds of work that need to be done, to discover their own preferences and assess their own abilities, and to make intelligent preparation for the work chosen. The school and college system of a democratic state should provide the widest possible variety of opportunities for this vocational preparation, ranging from simple occupations to the most difficult professions.

A Schedule of Requirements

The needs of students with regard to facts on which to base progressive occupational planning can be described as follows:

Elementary School

Although the elementary-school period is very important for personality growth, no particular facts are essential until basic research has discovered more valid devices for aptitude appraisal and better controls for attitude

[2] Max F. Baer and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information*, Science Research Associates, 1951, Chapter 2.

development. Since the educational emphasis throughout this period is on growth and mastery of learning tools, guidance should aim at insuring maximum individual progress and wholesome personal-social development.

Basic research on interest growth during this period is vital. However, since in our society the employment age is near twenty, no specific facts applied at the elementary-school level would promote optimal occupational distribution.

Early High School

During the first year of high school it is essential to reach tentative judgments, by appraisal of the total school record and use of general aptitude tests, on such questions as:
1. What is the desirable educational level for each pupil?
2. What is the expressed occupational choice of each pupil?
3. Into what job family do the interests and activities of each pupil best fit?
4. What apparent special assets or liabilities will affect the further educational-vocational progress of each pupil?

Later High School and Junior College

The above four facts about each pupil must be kept current, and changes regarding them should be recorded on a form that permits easy summary of group trends. At the time of beginning specialized training, the entire record should be re-examined and new appraisals made with a view to determining:
1. the general ability level of each pupil;
2. the quality of achievement in tool subjects;
3. the work abilities revealed by all school and nonschool activities;
4. the work interests revealed by all activities;
5. the work interests revealed by one or more interest tests;
6. the job family and the specific job choice;
7. the quality of personal-social adjustment;
8. the apparent job opportunities of the pupil.

In addition to these facts about individual pupils, group findings should be analyzed to show:
1. current figures on the number of people in training in each job field;
2. norms on each quantified measure for the entire group;
3. differential norms for special groups, such as job-family groups, job-interest groups, and curricular-choice groups;
4. comparison of the total group and of each sub-group with standards of

achievement set by previous classes of trainees whose job competence has been verified.

Early Employment

After placing trained workers in first jobs, the guidance responsibility of a school includes follow-up of workers to discover:

1. employers' opinions of workers' job competence and job adjustment, broken down to diagnose particular strengths and inadequacies in training;
2. workers' satisfaction with the job and evaluation of training;
3. the job and geographic distribution of workers.

In the Work World

Occupational guidance workers must make continuous studies of:

1. employment and replacement needs in the area served;
2. total employment in the area served;
3. estimates of rising and falling employment;
4. job descriptions of local employment outlets not satisfactorily covered by published descriptions.

The Nature of Occupational Information

The kinds of occupational information needed for career planning may be roughly classified as *quantitative* and *qualitative*. Quantitative information concerns occupational distribution, trends, and employment opportunities. Qualitative information concerns the nature of the work performed, the qualifications required, the conditions of work, and the returns to the worker. The young person planning to enter a trade or profession must consider not only how well suited he is to the job and the job to him, but also his chances of finding and keeping the job.

Quantitative Information

The full scope of occupational activities can be understood only when it is reduced to some order through the use of a system of classifications. The U.S. Bureau of the Census, an important source of occupational data,

reports employment information in two basic classifications—*a grouping by occupations* and *a grouping by industry*. The distribution by occupation for the United States for 1944, 1950, 1951, is shown in the following table:

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE EXPERIENCED LABOR FORCE
IN THE UNITED STATES, 1944, 1950, 1951*
(in Percent)

Major Occupational Group	1944	1950	1951
All experienced workers	100	100	100
Professional, semi-professional workers	5.8	7.2	7.8
Farmers and farm managers	8.7	7.0	7.8
Professional, managerial, official workers, except farm workers	8.1	10.4	10.0
Clerical and kindred	12.9	12.7	12.5
Salesworkers	4.9	6.3	6.2
Craftsmen, foremen, kindred	13.4	12.9	13.8
Operatives, kindred	22.6	20.8	21.0
Domestic-service workers	3.3	3.2	3.1
Service workers, except domestic	7.4	8.0	7.8
Farm laborers, foremen	7.6	5.1	4.7
Laborers, except farm	5.2	6.3	6.7

*Adapted from: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports (Labor Force);* "Annual Report of the Labor Force, 1951." Series P 50, No. 40. Table D, page 4, 1952.

The data in this table are important for vocational planning. They indicate that the largest percentages of workers find employment in the *operative, clerical and sales, craftsmen,* and *agricultural* categories. The percentage of high-school youth who aspire to professional fields (surveys indicate that from 40 to 50 percent do) should be checked against this statistic. Of course, this table represents only one criterion of employment opportunity, and the school counselor should have available similar data for the state and for the local county or city, because regions differ in the concentration of job opportunity. The counselor should also have data on the number of *unemployed* workers in each category, as well as estimates of employment trends in the area served by the school.

POPULATION STATISTICS. The best approach to knowing a community is through knowing its people. Statistical information on population is available from many sources. The publications of the Bureau of the Census provide distributions of population on a number of characteristics, among which are: age, sex, race, levels of schooling, occupation, employment, unemployment, income, and welfare levels. In order to give school staff and students a clearer picture of the community it is necessary to translate the data into

a form in which they can be quickly interpreted. In many schools such studies have been made as class projects, the students working under the leadership of a particularly interested teacher or counselor. In one school, the senior class developed a series of large charts which could be used by a teacher in social studies in presenting data on the community and its people.

In intervals between census periods it may be necessary to undertake extensive fieldwork to gather these data. Fieldwork is particularly important in communities which have undergone drastic population changes since the time of the latest census, as many did during the war years.

COMMUNITY INDUSTRIES. In addition to data on the population, it is important to know the basic economic activities of the community. A useful picture of these activities can be developed from data available in documentary reports on local industries. The Bureau of the Census, which reports such information, has developed a systematic plan for categorizing industries, and from these data it is possible to develop tables and charts of statistics on the nature of the products, the annual volume of business, employment and payrolls for given periods, seasonality, and other facets of the local employment situation. In addition, an investigation should be made of basic personnel and employment practices in the community. It is important to know the nature of the entry occupations—those occupations in which youth and beginning workers find their first employment. Information on the local industries' training programs and employment requirements should be systematically and continuously gathered and presented to students in that part of the curriculum which deals with occupational information.

Qualitative Information

Qualitative occupational information consists of detailed descriptions of specific occupations, including such items as tasks or duties involved, qualifications required, preparation required, methods of entering, earnings, hours of work, health hazards. Although for some occupations the counselor will know these facts from personal experience, for the most part he will rely on source materials for qualitative occupational information.

The purpose of this part of the chapter is to acquaint the guidance worker with the nature of the principal sources of qualitative occupational information and to indicate how it can be used advantageously in counseling. No attempt is made here to cover the field or to provide a bibliography of such materials. Data obtained from these sources must always be supplemented by information on the local situation, for many similar occupations are named differently from industry to industry, even in the same community, and the duties combined in a specific occupation will differ from

one industry to another and from one locality to another. Entrance into occupations is affected by varying labor-union regulations and state licenses. Although there is a movement to standardize job titles, job descriptions, and analyses of requirements in personnel descriptions, unified practice has not yet been achieved.

DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES. One of the most frequently used sources of occupational information today is the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.[3] It consists of three volumes—Parts I and II, first published in 1939 and periodically revised by the issuance of supplements, and Part IV, published in 1944. Although these publications were developed for the use of the U.S. Employment Service, they have been widely used by other agencies as well, notably in connection with veterans' counseling services, for many features of the *Dictionary* lend themselves to counseling in schools and colleges.

Part I contains six sections. The first is an introductory description of the work; the second deals with instructions for use; the third is the dictionary proper. This section of the original volume contained descriptions of 17,452 jobs. The information was obtained for the most part by direct observation and from job analyses of the work performed in many parts of the United States. By 1950, more than 39,000 job titles and more than 25,000 job descriptions were included in the *Dictionary* and its supplements. The fourth section contains an alphabetical listing of common commodities sold in wholesale and retail trade, with the titles of their vendors. The fifth section contains a list of occupations arranged by industry and the sixth a glossary of technical terms used in the job descriptions.

Part I of the *Dictionary* lists the occupations alphabetically. A typical example of a job description is the following:

Knitting Machine Operator (knit goods) *knitter; knitter, machine* 4-14.061. Adjusts, operates and threads the needles of one or more machines that knit fabrics, garments and other articles from yarn: Places full bobbins containing yarn of proper color on frame of machine. Ties end of yarn to end of yarn in machine, or inserts it through the eyes on frame of machine and draws it down through yarn tension spring. Hooks or loops end of yarn into knitting needle or yarn carrier (certain strands of yarn are inserted into yarn carrier while others are threaded through needles). May set the needles of machine for width and pattern of cloth. Starts machine that automatically knits the fabric or garment according to the manner in which

[3] *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service. Government Printing Office, 2nd ed., 1949. The original edition contained a Part III—Conversion Tables (obsolete since 1940).

it is set up by the *Machine Fixer*. Adjusts tension of tension spring so that knit will not be too tight or too loose. Inspects knitted material for flaws or defects and determines cause of defects. Ties end of broken threads. Separates knitted material or garment from machine by cutting threads with scissors. May replace broken needles in needle holder of machine.[4]

Each definition is composed of four parts: first, the main job-title (Knitting Machine Operator); second, identification of the industry in which this type of occupation occurs (knit goods). This is followed by alternate or synonymous job titles (knitter; knitter, machine). Third comes the occupational code number (4-14.061). The first digit (4) stands for skilled worker; the second and third digits (14) stand for *knitters, machine;* the entire code number stands for a narrow range of closely related machine-knitters jobs. The fourth part of the entry is the job description.

Part II of the *Dictionary*, "Group Arrangement of Occupational Titles and Codes," lists job titles in groups according to their occupational code numbers. Each digit in a code number gives specific information concerning the nature of the occupation codified.

The occupations in the *Dictionary* are divided first into broad groups or categories, each of which is subdivided a number of times. Codes beginning with the same digit represent occupations that have certain general characteristics in common; codes in which the first three digits correspond represent occupations that have a great many characteristics in common, and codes in which the first four digits correspond have even more characteristics in common. The seven major occupational groups, according to this classification, are differentiated by the first digit of the code number.

0 —Professional and managerial occupations
     0-0 through 0-3   Professional occupations
     0-4 through 0-6   Semiprofessional occupations
     0-7 through 0-9   Managerial and official occupations

1 —Clerical and sales occupations
     1-0 through 1-4   Clerical and kindred occupations
     1-5 through 1-9   Sales and kindred occupations

2 —Service Occupations
     2-0   Domestic service occupations
     2-2 through 2-5   Personal-service occupations
     2-6   Protective-service occupations
     2-8 and 2-9   Building-service workers and porters

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 730.

3   —Agriculture, fishery, forestry and kindred occupations

   3-0 through 3-4 Agricultural, horticultural, and kindred occupations

   3-8   Fishery occupations

   3-9   Forestry, and hunting, and trapping occupations

4 and 5—Skilled occupations

6 and 7—Semiskilled occupations

8 and 9—Unskilled occupations

These occupational groups are further subdivided into about 550 smaller groups, which are identified by the first three digits of their code numbers. In the skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled groups, related occupations have the same second and third digits on all three levels; for example, the code designation 4-14 denotes skilled occupations in the manufacture of knit goods; 6-14 denotes semiskilled occupations in the same industry, and 8-14 denotes unskilled occupations in the same industry.

Codes in which the first three digits correspond contain job classifications or occupations distinguished by the fourth, fifth, or sixth digits:

Knitters, Machine (4-14.060 through 4-14.099)
   4-14.061 Knitting-Machine Operator (knit goods)
   4-14.062 Knitting-Machine Operator, Full-Fashioned Hosiery
   4-14.063 Knitting-Machine Operator, Hand (knit goods) II, etc.

There are no unskilled operators for knitting machines; however, some of the unskilled occupational groups in the manufacture of knit goods would be:

   8-14.01 Laborer (hosiery)
   8-14.02 Laborer (knit goods)
       Etc.

The first three digits of the example given, "Knitting Machine Operator, 4-14.061," are 4-14. On page XIV of Part II are 4, 6, 8-14, occupations in the manufacture of knit goods. The 4, 6, and 8 indicate three levels of occupations in the second- and third-digit classifications, 15, which are occupations in the manufacture of knit goods. A finer breakdown of skilled occupations in this group is presented on page 86.

In this way, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* may be used in finding related occupations on various levels. Because the *Dictionary* provides an opportunity to explore vertically and horizontally related jobs, it is a valuable tool in the counseling process.

Part IV of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is intended to assist in

the classification of applicants into kinds of work in which they have not acquired fully qualifying experience or specific vocational training,[5] whereas Parts I and II deal with the fully qualified individual. In Part IV jobs are grouped according to the nature of tasks performed and the requirements of workers in entry occupations. As an illustration of how to use Part IV of the dictionary, consider the occupation of auto mechanic. Page 196 gives this occupation a Part IV code number of 4-x2.103. Page 2 lists the 4-x2.1 as mechanical repairing, breaking down the occupations of this group into the following occupational subdivisions:

4.x2.10 Mechanical repairing
4.x2.100 All-around mechanical repairing
4.x2.102 Engine and pump maintenance repairing
4.x2.103 Combustion-engine repairing
4.x2.104 Aircraft-equipment repairing
4.x2.105 Textile-machine repairing
4.x2.106 Office-machine repairing
4.x2.107 Armament repairing
4.x2.109 Miscellaneous mechanical repairing

Listed on page 73 is "4x2.103 Combustion-Engine Repairing." Below this code number are listed certain entry occupations. Among these are #7-99.060, Automobile Mechanic Apprentice (auto service). Listed also are the related classifications: 0-x7.4, *Engineering and Related*; 6-x6.64, *Equipment Service and Related*.

On page 163 is found information on personal traits that have occupational significance for the 4-x2 machine trades:

a. Ability to understand the functional nature of machines and to visualize how a part will function by observation of it.
b. Interest in machines.
c. Ability to read or learn to read complicated blue prints and to follow detailed specifications.
d. Ability to understand the mathematics of solids and angles.
e. Respect for tools and equipment.
f. Accuracy; precision in workmanship.
g. Manual and finger dexterity.
h. Eye-hand coordination.
i. Muscular and touch discrimination.
j. Memory for detail.

[5] *Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Entry Occupational Classifications* (rev. ed.), U.S. Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1944, p. **vi**.

k. Alertness in attending many items simultaneously.

l. Spatial perception and visual discrimination.

m. Judgment and speed of motion.

n. Ability to plan sequences of operations and judgment in selecting method for doing work.

The listed casual work experiences that have significance for the occupation of auto mechanic are: *Farm hand, mechanical operative or repairing,* page 170, and *Gas-station work,* page 170. Training courses with occupational significance in this field are listed on page 176.

Part IV furnishes a useful tool for work exploration, course selection, assessing the individual in relation to possible job requirements, and obtaining information on entry occupations that will enable the student to reach his long-range objective. The experienced counselor will use Part IV of the *Dictionary* with caution, realizing that personal traits and interests can be developed beyond past experience and that each person is potentially qualified for a number of occupations. Nevertheless, the counselor and client together can use Part IV profitably so long as they keep in mind that the selection of a lifework should extend over a long period of time and be determined in the light of many factors.

OBTAINING QUALITATIVE INFORMATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY. Means by which to obtain local occupational information range from casual chats with workers to highly scientific job analyses. The methods used will depend on the size of the community, the types of industries in it, and the working relationship between the school counselor and personnel workers in the community.

Obtaining occupational materials has a great educational value for students. When the student himself has the responsibility for obtaining the information that will enable him to choose his vocation, he is likely to be alert and persistent in his search. The experience of interviewing, moreover, gives him practice that will result in more poise in his own employment interviews at a later date.

Job-analysis materials may be obtained from directors of personnel in industrial plants. The amount of occupational information obtained from industry publications and reports is indicative of the adequacy of the school placement service. Because job analysis is a highly developed method of obtaining occupational information, most counselors have neither the training nor the time to make such analyses and must, therefore, rely on published materials. In obtaining materials, it is the counselor's responsibility to point out to personnel managers how local industries will benefit from the school's use of the data. An adequate study of occupations provides information on two levels: (1) a broad overview of the scope, variability, and

trends in opportunity; and (2) a detailed study of specific vocations. Many books and monographs are available which report fully one occupation. Several agencies publish periodic reports on employment trends, wages, and conditions of work. Intelligent long-range planning of careers requires an understanding both of general occupational trends and of the activities, requirements, and rewards of specific occupations.

The Nature of School Programs

Educational planning must be done carefully, insightfully, and continuously throughout the school years, because key decisions must be made at various points in the individual's educational career. Because the student's future rests upon such choices, and because the realization of his aspirations often is possible only through the help of his parents, it is important for them to be involved in making these important choices. Wise decisions, of course, can be made only on the basis of full awareness of the facts involved; and unfortunately in many cases neither parents nor students have a clear understanding of the wide variety of curriculums, majors, and courses in the high school, the junior college, the state college, and the university, and of the broad range of apprenticeship and on-the-job training programs available. It is, of course, a responsibility of the school staff to make these richly varied educational and vocational opportunities known to students and their parents by means of the various counseling and public-relations channels.

Educational and vocational planning are necessarily and intimately related; and, in order for a student to plan wisely and to progress toward his professional or vocational goal, he and his parents must understand the complicated organization of our school systems. The elementary school, of course, provides pupils with a foundation in the academic skills .The junior high school continues this basic program and adds an emphasis on social skills and exploration of special fields by means of the gradual introduction of departmental activities and exploratory courses.

The end of the eighth grade is a time of crucial educational choice for many students, who must decide which of several high-school curriculums to select: college-preparatory, vocational, or general courses. These are very broad curriculums, of course, each containing many specific directions of specialization; and after selecting a general field, the student must make further decisions. If he is preparing for college, for example, he must decide on a major in one of a number of academic areas—language, art, music, science, mathematics, history, literature, and others. If he has entered the

vocational program, he must decide on a major in one of the vocational areas
—agriculture, home-making, business, a skilled trade—or in one of a number
of specific divisions within these occupational categories, such as printing,
wood shop, auto mechanics, sheet metal, and others. The general course is
provided for those students whose life and vocational plans do not require
either college or occupational training and for those who want to postpone
such decisions; this program qualifies the student for the junior college and
for many other post-high-school educational opportunities.

The junior college provides both transfer programs for those who plan to
go on to a college or university and terminal programs for those who want
advanced technical preparation for work. As junior colleges increase in
number and as the age for entering employment advances, it is possible for
many youth to obtain the higher level of general education and the occupa-
tional preparation which the junior college provides.

Colleges offer a great variety of courses and specializations. Institutions
differ widely, however, in entrance requirements, in cost, in social climate,
and in academic specialties, and the student who has a choice of several
colleges needs to acquire a lot of facts about each before he can select
intelligently.

To sum up: Choosing courses and planning careers—and reconsidering
and redrafting plans—all are an important aspect of secondary education.
Although specific occupational plans should not be made too early, a choice
of general vocational field is helpful in that it makes purposeful educational
planning possible. Wise planning, of course, requires not only effort but
data, and providing this information at the proper time and in an effective
way is a function of the school guidance program.

School Procedures in Providing Information

There is a variety of ways in which schools and school systems attempt
to provide informational resources and services. One of the functions of the
well-trained director of guidance is to develop a coordinated informational
program involving teachers, librarians, counselors, and community agencies.
The director will be more effective if he has had varied work experience
and has made a special study of occupational trends, job analysis, placement,
and resources for obtaining and distributing educational and occupational
information. His efforts to pass on information to pupils will involve such
procedures as:

1. Devising ways to enlist all teachers in relating course content to occu-
   pational needs.

2. Providing teachers with information, source materials, techniques; developing in-service training programs for the staff.
3. Coordinating the participation of the vocational teachers in a program which gives the school the benefit of their special knowledge.
4. Assisting the librarian to develop a special shelf of current, reliable, and attractive vocational materials.
5. Establishing a working relationship with employment offices, college-admissions departments, and other important nonschool sources.

Before information can be made available to students, it must be obtained and organized. Information on colleges is usually available in school libraries which have accessible files of current catalogues and informational bulletins on the colleges to which they commonly send students. Reference books are available which provide basic information on all colleges in the country. (Several such directories appear in the list of basic informational materials at the end of this chapter.) Such information files should also include literature describing opportunities in junior colleges, business colleges, trade schools, and apprenticeship and on-the-job training programs. The librarian should make files of such materials available to the home-room teacher who wishes to bring them directly into her classroom for use in group activities focused on planning for higher education and future employment.[6] In many high schools, a tacit assumption exists that all graduates will go to college. This is, of course, an error, for many more graduates go to work or to intermediate and specialized training programs than go to colleges and universities. In actual numbers, therefore, more high-school students require occupational information than require material on higher education.

The library of occupational literature should contain two basic classes of reference material: (1) material which provides data on the whole range of occupations, and (2) material which describes single occupations or occupational fields in considerable detail.

The first category includes the following: the appropriate volumes of Bureau of the Census publications, providing national, state, and local information on industries, occupations, employment and unemployment; the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, which furnishes brief, reliable, descriptive statements, alphabetically arranged, on more than 40,000 occupations; material published periodically by state agencies. reporting data on employment conditions and trends; books and monographs which survey the whole field; books written specifically for high-school students, to be used either as references or texts; charts and graphs which provide pictorial surveys, for

[6] Gertrude Forrester, *Occupations, A Selected List of Pamphlets*, H. W. Wilson Co., 1946.

use on library and classroom bulletin boards. The bibliography at the end of this chapter lists a number of other references. All these materials need occasional screening and replacement to keep them reasonably current. School librarians should see that such items are provided for use, not for storage.

From material of the second category—material which describes occupations in much detail—the student is enabled to learn the duties of a worker in a particular occupation, the conditions of work, the rates of pay, qualifications for entering and for advancement, associations and legal aspects, and, in some cases the status the occupation has in social and economic life. Some of this information can be found in magazine articles, and much of it is available at a nominal cost from public agencies and private publishers.[7]

Pamphlets are of especial benefit to the counselor for use with students whose vocational interests are of a juvenile, glamorized nature. Pamphlets can be handed out to the students and, being comparatively brief, are more likely to be read than books. Such material can be of real service in presenting a realistic picture of a vocation to a student who has had unreal notions about it. Information in pamphlets must be supplemented, of course, by data on local conditions of employment and by up-to-date information on wages and trends. The variety of readily available reference materials of this type is great, and several systems of filing them are in use. The school library should provide money, space, and professional attention for this material.

But a word of caution is in order here. Coming from so many sources, most of which adhere to no particular standards, informational materials on occupations vary greatly in quality and must be carefully selected.

Occupational Information and the Curriculum

Providing informational material is, of course, a basic step toward furnishing students with data on educational and occupational opportunities, but many schools go further by providing an *organized program of informational activities*. Among such activities are:

1. *Information in the elementary school about occupations and economic life.* Many elementary-school programs are designed to acquaint pupils with the tasks men perform to earn their living and serve the community. In the lower grades, stories and field trips give pupils some understanding of the local industries, transportation, communication, public services and utilities, and natural resources and their use. The teaching of geography and social studies

[7] Gertrude Forrester's *Occupations, A Selected List of Pamphlets*, which has already been referred to, provides identification and order data on 1,500 pamphlets of this type.

in many schools emphasizes economic life. In the upper grades, specific attention is given to educational opportunities and educational planning.

2. *The articulation program* (see Chapter 14). In many schools, a counselor assigned to the junior high school helps young people to get a full grasp of the relationship of early program planning to vocational goals.

3. *Exploratory courses.* The junior high school was originally thought of as an exploratory school in which all pupils would investigate various fields of knowledge and skill. Although the prevalent view today is that the junior high school should provide a gradual introduction to departmental and specialized activities, this transitional program still offers opportunity to explore interests and learn about school and work relationships. Shop courses not only enable young people to develop their skill with tools but offer them occupational information as well, just as introductory business courses provide information about jobs and careers in business. Beginning courses in special areas offer students a chance to examine various phases of economic and social life and to discover which hold promise of being congenial to them.

4. *Regular subjects.* Possibly the most effective way of facilitating purposeful educational planning is to devote systematic attention to the vocational relationships of all the subjects in the curriculum.[8] Education does more, of course, than prepare students for work; it serves far different purposes as well. Yet virtually every course is vocational for some young people, and all courses have interrelationships which need to be made clear to students. Some teachers give special attention to this aspect of the curriculum, realizing that many students fail to understand the vocational values of their courses; an example is the student who resentfully says that he sees no reason for studying algebra—though he aspires to be an engineer! Another example is the youngster who resists learning grammar though he hopes to be a radio announcer. Young people need help to see that seemingly unrelated subjects are necessary steps toward realizing their cherished ambitions.

Some schools plan special periods in all classes for this type of guidance. The help of specialists on the staff and in the community is enlisted; thus, a lawyer will explain how arithmetic is a necessary step in the process that will eventually enable one to become a highly paid tax consultant; a doctor will explain how chemistry is a necessary tool for making laboratory tests to discover disease; a policeman will point out how useful English courses were in enabling him to present evidence correctly to a jury. These interrelationships of courses to occupations can be presented systematically to assure full coverage. Both those occupations that are directly connected with a specific

[8] Otto R. Bacher and George J. Berkowitz, *School Courses and Related Careers,* Science Research Associates, 1941.

course and those that are indirectly connected should be listed, and the most beneficial study sequence should be mapped out.

5. *Courses and units on educational and occupational information.* The modern occupational world is so complex and the facts about it so voluminous and varied that no incidental and haphazard attempt to describe it can be adequate to the needs of the student who is about to enter it. Many schools, therefore, have developed special courses and short units in an effort to provide adequate information. Such courses require pertinent curriculum materials and a qualified teacher, and many school counselors are adequately prepared for this duty.

The informational content of the course is usually combined with an appraisal and self-appraisal program. The course should be broad enough in scope to offer an overview of the world at work, not merely an intensive investigation of career fields in which the students are already interested.[9] Such courses are frequently included in the ninth and twelfth grades. The ninth-grade course serves to expand the scope of the student's knowledge of occupations and to assist him in making a tentative choice of a field of work and study, whereas the twelfth-grade course may provide more intensive study of special fields in order to help students make specific plans. By the time they are seniors, many students are interested in locating definite job opportunities, writing applications, being interviewed, meeting workers and employers, and planning entrance into specific training programs. The content of a course designed for these students would be quite unlike that of a course planned for college-preparatory students, who require different materials and activities; in fact, two separate courses are normally required.

Although textbooks are useful for these courses, they are insufficient. The whole of the school's educational and vocational library must be made available to the teacher. In some schools, library carts are stacked with pamphlets, magazines, and books and placed in the classroom. Vocational teachers come to the classroom to discuss their particular fields; community workers in various occupations are invited to discuss their vocations or are visited and interviewed on the job. Field trips, motion pictures, and other visual aids are used to depict the vocations as clearly as possible.

6. *Career days.* Special days may be devoted to a school-wide program on careers. To be something more than a show or a public-relations program, a school-wide career conference requires definite planning and structuring as part of the entire occupational-information program. Although the school counselor is responsible for structuring, he shares this responsibility with many other members of the school, including, naturally, the students themselves. In fact, one criterion of the effectiveness of a career con-

[9] Baer and Roeber, *op. cit.*, Chapter 14.

ference might well be the extent of student participation. Students should select the fields to be covered, help plan the agenda, and arrange for attendance; student committees should invite and introduce speakers. Interviews with these speakers should be arranged for students who are especially interested in the fields they represent, to enable them to ask questions directly of consultants. Students should participate in the evaluation and follow-up of the conference, and school reporters should prepare digests of the meetings for the school or local papers.

The career day has many obvious values: the community is brought directly into the school; students have an opportunity to hear various occupations discussed by men really at work in them and facing the practical problems they present.[10] A career conference can be the introduction to a unit on occupational information and planning or a climax activity in connection with such a unit.

7. *Community survey*. Because many changes may occur in a community between census periods, one of the major problems of providing information on local opportunities is that of obtaining current information. Few school districts have agencies which assemble such data to any significant extent. Some communities make an effort to meet this problem by surveys. A survey may be a comprehensive analysis of community activities and conditions, or it may be pointed directly at occupational trends and opportunities. It may be carried on by a staff of trained research technicians or by students themselves; the former method provides more reliable data than the latter, but the latter is a good learning experience for the students involved. Either method requires careful advance preparation.[11] Among the steps to be taken are the following:

a. Determine the objective of the survey. What questions are to be answered? What kinds of data are required? How will the data be used in the school program? What student problems are being served?

b. Determine the geographical area to be covered. This will probably be the area served by the school. It need not be coterminous with the school district, however, since in many places important employment opportunities are outside these boundaries.

c. Determine the kinds of data needed. These may include previous employment by occupation and industry, current employment, turnover, and estimates of future needs. The information required may concern not only the numbers of workers but also the ages, sexes, qualifications, and other conditions of work.

d. Collect and analyze data already available. In many communities such

[10] Forrester, *op. cit.*, Chapter 13.
[11] Baer and Roeber, *op. cit.*, Chapter 11.

information is already collected in various places. The Census reports will provide background information for cities and counties. State employment offices have data on certain placement opportunities and working conditions. State and local agencies, both public and private, may have various kinds of survey information and estimates. Important sources of data are the library, the employment service, and the chamber of commerce. The analysis of available background data provides a historical setting and—more important—a structure and a set of categories for planning the survey.

e. Develop plans, techniques, and forms for collecting data. Data may be gathered by observation, personal contact, questionnaire, or a combination of several techniques. In any event, the field workers must know precisely what information to obtain and how to record it before starting the canvass. If students or teachers are used, it will be necessary to conduct training sessions on the techniques to be used.

f. Develop plans for collecting, analyzing, and reporting the survey. In the school situation, this involves not only the preparation of the report for the community but also the preparation of curriculum materials for implementing the findings in the instructional and informational program.

8. *Follow-up studies.* A systematic follow-up of former students, graduates, and drop-outs is another technique for obtaining occupational information. The follow-up naturally provides evaluation data and information on other student problems as well.[12] In general, students now in school will find the same pattern of opportunities that previous students found; however, surveys based on follow-up studies covering only students who recently left school will represent only entrance occupations and must be cautiously interpreted. A protracted follow-up program will provide a much more detailed picture. Several bulletins are available on the techniques of making such studies. As with any research study, the follow-up must have an adequate research design, careful execution, and reporting within the limits of the sampling and of the possible errors. Actual gathering by data may well be carried on by students with the leadership of a trained research worker. The process offers students valuable opportunities for learning about jobs.

The procedures listed above for gathering and studying educational and occupational information are all found in current school practice. They do not, of course, exhaust the possible approaches. Many schools use all the methods listed; some schools make wide use of work experience and extend its informational values by student discussion and reports; other schools capitalize on devices for sharing summer experiences through themes, reports, and forums. A wide variety of slides, pictures, motion pictures, and

[12] *Ibid.,* Chapter 10.

other sources of information and motivation is available. A systematic program for helping teachers, counselors, and administrators to vary their summer work and observational experience has been found effective in vitalizing this aspect of the school program.

As all of these methods suggest, supplying occupational information is the task of the entire school. Although the task of giving students information on an individual basis cannot be delegated to one person if all students are to receive information, the school counselor has the major share of the responsibility for the program. Since he uses much of the pertinent data in his work with individual students, it is his responsibility to possess or to obtain the specific facts a student may require which may not have been covered in the group program. The counselor interprets data for the student who needs assistance and helps him to analyze alternatives, understand training requirements, and assess his own abilities and his probable effectiveness in a specific work situation. However, because the counselor is responsible for hundreds of students, it is necessary to provide a group program to obtain optimal results from a limited amount of individual counseling time.

Summary

Essentially, the guidance program must help each individual to plan sensibly for his future. To fulfill this purpose it is necessary, of course, that each student be helped to understand his own abilities, interests, and opportunities, and to plan an education in harmony with them. In order to carry out these functions, four basic services must be provided:

1. continuous study of the abilities, interests, achievements and development of each student;
2. continuous study of opportunity for work experiences in the community and for entry into the world of work;
3. individual counseling services;
4. techniques for helping young people to make the shift from school to full-time work.

In our society, each individual's finding a lifework in which he is happy amounts to achieving a basic adjustment; and a counselor who seeks to help young people make this adjustment can never know his field completely, for his task requires continuous study and exploration of vocational requirements and opportunities. The occupational world is highly complex, but

within recent years a vast library of information about vocations has become available. More than 40,000 occupations have been identified and defined, and it is now an accepted responsibility of education to provide young people with experience which will enable them to learn about the different kinds of work that need to be performed in our economy.

The job seeker who makes the effort to become informed knows in advance the types of occupations that offer opportunity, the kinds of information and skills each requires, the conditions of work, the social and material returns that can be expected, and the kinds of training and experience that the beginning worker should possess. He is able, therefore, to plan his education in terms of his increased understanding of himself and the types of jobs or professions for which he is in some measure suited.

During the elementary-school years, pupils may read widely about occupations in social studies, but no attempt is made to help them select a life-work. When the students are in the first year in high school, however, guidance workers become concerned with getting significant criteria for each student—by appraisal of his total school record and by the use of general aptitude tests—that will provide a basis for tentative judgments on such matters as: What is the desirable educational level for this individual? What is his expressed (if any) occupational choice? Into what job family do his interests and activities best fit? What apparent special assets or liabilities will affect his further educational-vocational progress? These data for each student must be kept current through the later high-school and junior-college years. When the time comes for the student to decide on specialized training, the continuous record should be re-examined and evaluated for the purpose of making decisions on his abilities and interests, his personal adjustment, the general job family he seems to fit, the specific job he prefers, and the job opportunities open to him.

Occupational information falls into two general classes: (1) *qualitative* information concerning the nature of the work performed, the abilities required of the worker, working conditions, and rates of pay; and (2) *quantitative* information concerning occupational distribution, trends, and employment opportunities. Obviously, the young person planning to enter a trade or profession must know not only how suitable it is for him but how much chance he has of finding and keeping the job he wants. One of the most frequently used sources of occupational information is the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* But in addition to the data obtainable from this type of source, a job seeker must obtain information about job opportunities and conditions in the community in which he lives and must work. He can gather this information by interviewing workers and personnel directors and studying job analyses of local industries. This study has further advantages

in that it sensitizes students to the problem of learning about vocations and makes them alert and persistent in searching for appropriate jobs.

Students often have unreal vocational aspirations in terms of the job opportunities open to them. About half of all young people in high school aspire to the professions, whereas in actuality only one in ten can hope to succeed in a professional career. The largest percentage of workers find employment in the operative, clerical and sales, crafts, and agricultural categories. This percentage is, of course, based on a nation-wide overview, and local conditions may vary. Because regions differ in the concentration of job opportunities, the school counselor should have specific data for his state, county, and community.

For the student, planning a lifework must be a continuous process throughout his school years, because key decisions must be made at various points in his educational career. Parents must be involved in such decision-making because parental help is often necessary to enable young people to realize their aspirations; parents, however, cannot help in making important career choices unless they too have information on which to base judgments. It is the duty of the school staff, therefore, to make known to the community, by means of the various counseling and public-relations channels, the rich variety of educational and vocational information provided by the school.

The effective guidance director develops a well-coordinated program for passing along vocational information to students. This program utilizes teachers, vocational instructors, librarians, counselors, and community agencies and involves such efforts as: (1) providing teachers with information, source materials, and techniques; (2) assisting the librarian to develop special files of materials on vocations and on college courses and requirements; (3) securing the cooperation of employment offices, college admissions departments, and other important nonschool sources in providing informational materials and experiences. All materials should be made available for use in home rooms and in student groups involved in special projects.

In addition to furnishing occupational materials, many schools provide an organized program of informational activities, such as articulation programs, exploratory courses, regular courses in which the vocational content is emphasized, courses and units on educational and occupational planning, career days, community surveys, and follow-up studies.

A counselor must always bear in mind, of course, that many students need help with personal relationships and self-realization before they are ready to deal adequately with educational planning; in fact, learning about oneself and one's environment is a necessary prerequisite for sensibly planning one's future.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. In appropriate volumes of the reports of the U.S. Bureau of the Census one finds data on both occupational and industrial distribution of workers for all counties and all cities over 25,000 population. From the data available in the census reports for 1920, 1930, 1940, and 1950, prepare charts which indicate the distribution of workers in your city or county.

Explore various kinds of graphic presentation for making these data meaningful to students. Prepare an analysis of the major trends over this 40-year period.

2. Information about college opportunities and entrance requirements is as important to students in planning for the future as is information about jobs. Prepare a list of the college catalogs which should be in your school information file. Include all the colleges to which graduates of your school generally go.

3. Select the four colleges chosen most often by graduates of your school and prepare a chart for bulletin board display of the entrance requirements of these institutions. Be sure to include the state university and the most prominent private college or university in your area.

4. The following data come from a study of the summer work experiences of over 700 students in various schools in a Midwestern state.

Boys		*Girls*	
1. Farm worker	109	1. Clerk	70
2. Laborer	108	2. Waitress	61
3. Clerk	29	3. Cannery worker	36
4. Gas station worker	28	4. Houseworker	19

AND PROJECTS

5.	Cannery worker	16	5.	Farm worker	17
6.	Janitor	9	6.	Fruit packer	13
7.	Truck driver	5	7.	Babysitter	12
8.	Dish washer	5	8.	Office worker	11
9.	Bakery worker	5	9.	Theater worker	10
10.	Creamery worker	5	10.	Fruit picker	5
11.	Government worker	5	11.	Laborer	4
12.	Stock boy	4	12.	Teacher	3
13.	Odd jobs	4	13.	Seamstress	2
14.	Bellboy	3	14.	Dental assistant	2
15.	Bus boy	3	15.	Nurse's aid	2
16.	Shepherd	2	16.	Cleaner's helper	2
17.	Yard worker	2	17.	Cook	2
18.	Newspaper boy	2	18.	Recreation worker	1
19.	Mink farm worker	2	19.	Telephone operator	1
20.	Kitchen helper	1	20.	Photo plant worker	1
21.	Laboratory assistant	1	21.	Newspaper worker	1
22.	Painter	1			—
23.	Meat packer	1		TOTAL	275
24.	Clergyman	1			
25.	Office worker	1			
26.	Waiter	1			
27.	Radio repairman	1			
28.	Factory worker	1			
		—			
	TOTAL	455			

What implications do these data have for the selection of areas of occupational information which need to be stressed in the school?

One additional datum from the same report is that 76 percent of all students sampled were employed during that summer.

Classify these jobs under the Bureau of the Census Occupational Classification structure.

What important occupational areas are not being explored by these students?

5. A state-wide survey of the vocational plans of high-school seniors indicates that 61 percent of them plan to attend college, 4 percent are undecided, and 34 percent expect to terminate formal schooling at the end of high school. Do these data have implications for the occupational information and vocational counseling program of the school? How do the trends indicated in these data compare with national trends with regard to the number of students planning to enter professional and other occupational fields which require college training?

6. Prepare a simple half-page questionnaire for surveying the educational and vocational plans of students in your school. What kind of changes would you expect to observe between the plans of freshmen and seniors?

7. A survey of the 700 juniors in a city high school indicates that these students received their vocational information from the following sources:

1. Other students	205
2. Employment agencies	203
3. "Want ads"	79
4. Family	103
5. School	77

How do you evaluate these data?

Are the students using reliable sources?

Would these sources be equally valuable for both long-range vocational planning and immediate job placement?

Would you expect similar sources of data in a school which systematically collects and distributes occupational information?

8. Examine the occupational-information materials in the library of your own secondary school or one to which you have access. Prepare a list of these materials. Note particularly the dates of the publications.

Evaluate this list in terms of general coverage, special emphases, and up-to-dateness.

Prepare a list of supplementary materials which would be useful.

9. Many school files are deficient in information on scholarships, loans, and other financial aids for potential college students. Prepare a plan by which a class in senior problems or some other high-school class can develop such a file as a project. Organize the group into committees to ensure national as well as local coverage.

What general curriculum values do you see in such a project? (One high school reports using the mimeographed results of such a project carried out by its seniors in its freshman-orientation program.)

10. Data secured from follow-up studies of former students have important implications for the school's occupational information program and for curriculum planning. Prepare a simple one-page Employment History Questionnaire for use in making such a survey. Be sure to include items which give measures of the worker's satisfaction with his job as well as the usual job-description items.

Compare the value of information obtained in this way with that of information obtained from Census reports. Are both necessary? Why?

11. Does the popularity of the television program *What's My Line?* suggest a good method of distributing occupational information? Plan a similar impromptu program with a panel, a moderator, and a list of individuals representing various occupations.

12. Prepare an outline to be used by all the teachers in a high school in presenting the occupational relationships of their respective subjects.

In most schools the teaching staff is a source of a wide range of first-hand information about occupations. This is particularly true of schools which have vocational and industrial-arts programs. These resources are frequently not fully used by guidance workers. (For suggestions consult the monograph by Bacher and Berkowitz which is included in the reading list at the end of this chapter.)

13. Visit the nearest office of a public employment agency and ask permission to observe a typical employment interview with a young worker. Observe the various kinds of employment-information materials available in such an office. Prepare a plan for improving cooperation between the school and the public employment service.

SELECTED READINGS

Dewey Anderson and Percy E. Davidson, *Recent Occupational Trends in American Labor*, Stanford University Press, 1945.

Otto R. Bacher and George J. Berkowitz, *School Courses and Related Careers—A Vocational Survey Plan*, Science Research Associates, 1951.

Max F. Baer and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information*, Science Research Associates, 1951.

William G. Campbell, *You and Your Future Job*, Los Angeles Society for Occupational Research, 1944.

Edward R. Fiske, *Veterans' Best Opportunities*, Duell, Sloane and Pearce, 1946.

Gertrude Forrester, *Occupations, A Selected List of Pamphlets*, H. W. Wilson, 1946.

Alice Helen Frankel, *Handbook of Job Facts*, Science Research Associates, 1948.

Eli Ginzberg, Sol W. Ginzberg, Sidney Axelrad, and John L. Herma, *Occupational Choice*, Columbia University Press, 1951.

Darrell Huff, *Twenty Careers of Tomorrow*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1945.

Fritz Kaufmann, *Your Job*, Harper and Brothers, 1948.

H. D. Kitson and M. R. Lingenfelter, *Vocations for Boys*, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1942.

——, *Vocations for Girls*, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1939.

Mildred E. Lincoln, *Teaching About Vocational Life*, International Textbook Co., 1937.

John McDonnell, *Your Place in Life and How to Find It*, Trailblazers, 1938.

Walter E. Myer, *Promise of Tomorrow*, Civic Education Service, 1938.

George E. Myers, Gladys M. Little, and Sarah A. Robinson, *Planning Your Future*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953.

N. William Newsom, Harl R. Douglass, and Harry L. Dotson, *Living and Planning Your Life*, Harper and Brothers, 1952.

Carroll L. Shartle, *Occupational Information*, Prentice-Hall, 1946.

Samuel Spiegler, *Your Life's Work*, Riverdale Press, 1943.

William H. Stead and W. Earl Masincup, *The Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service*, Public Administration Service, 1943.

Donald E. Super, *The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment*, Harper and Brothers, 1942.

U.S. Department of Labor, *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, Bulletin No. 940, 1948.

SOURCES OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

The following are a few sources of free or low-cost occupational descriptions and occupational monographs and leaflets.

Free or Low-cost Occupational Materials

Industry Series. Reports and Analysis Service, U.S. Employment Service, Washington 25, D.C. These pamphlets and bulletins, etc. are distributed free, but the mailing list is restricted to school and adult counselors, research and vocational-guidance organizations, government agencies, high-school, college, and university libraries. The materials contain labor-market information devised for the U.S. Employment Service for use in counseling but are of value to others engaged in such professional activity. Example: Series 29-2, "Petroleum Extraction and Refining."

Individual Occupational Descriptions (booklet). Some of these booklets are available, at five cents each, from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Others are available free in limited quantities from Occupational Analysis Section, United States Employment Service, Washington 25, D.C. Examples: "Bessemer-Converter Blower," five cents. "Hammersmith," free.

Descriptions of professions are available without cost by writing to National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, United States Employment Service, Washington 25, D.C. Example: "Ceramic Engineering," "Accounting."

Descriptions of occupations pertaining to agriculture are available from Office of Information, U.S. Department of Agriculture, in *U.S. Department of Agriculture Bulletins*, free.

Monographs and leaflets published by the U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, are available from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., at a moderate price. Examples: "Farm Forestry," by Ross and Mattoon, V. D. Bulletin 196, 1939, 63 pages, fifteen cents; "Related Instructions for Plumber Apprentices," by Hambrook, V. D. Bulletin 200, 1939, 87 pages, fifteen cents.

Occupational Monographs

Other materials than the government-issue series of occupational monographs

are of great value to the counselor and student, and most of them are moderately priced. Some sources and examples of these are listed below.

Occupational Monographs, American Job Series, Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. Example: "Your Future in Chemistry."

Careers Research Monographs, The Institute for Research, 537 South Dearborn Street, Chicago 5, Illinois. Example: Number 61, "The Diesel Engine—Careers."

Occupational Abstracts, Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, New York. Example: "Linotype Operator," "Garage Mechanic," "Banking."

Occupational Briefs of Postwar Job Fields, Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. Examples: "General Farmers," "Sheet Metal Workers."

Ohio State and Occupations, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Describes jobs and occupations in various fields such as "Education," "Foreign Trade."

Vocational Guidance Monographs, Commonwealth Book Company, Inc., 80 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois. Series of monographs such as Series A., No. 25, "Watchmaking and Repairing."

Vocational Monographs, Reference Library, The Quarrie Corporation, 35 East Wacker Drive, Chicago. Examples: "Merchandising," "Insurance."

Books Covering Several Occupations

All in the Day's Work, edited by Zila Robbins, Appleton-Century Co., 35 West 32nd St., New York 1, New York, 1944. 338 pages, $1.36.

Handbook of Careers (covering 14 fields), by Herbert Burstein, Thesis Publishing Company, West 34th St., New York, N. Y., 1941. 120 pages, $1.00; paper edition, 50¢.

Jobs for Today's Youth, T. O. Noll and B. H. Davis, Association Press, 347 Madison Ave., New York 17, N. Y., 1941. 168 pages, $1.75.

My Vocation (by outstanding Americans), edited by Earl G. Lockhart, H. W. Wilson Co., 950-972 University Ave., New York 52, N. Y., 1930. 334 pages, $2.00.

New Occupations for Youth, T. O. Noll, Association Press, 347 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y., 1938. 192 pages, $1.75.

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Vocational Counseling

THE TASK at which school counselors spend most of their time is helping young people plan their educational and vocational futures.[1] The general principles of counseling apply to vocational counseling, too, yet certain aspects of the process merit special attention. The task of helping students to plan their future is not simply a counseling experience: *it is a whole school program which touches the lives of all students and involves many school activities.* The true dimensions of this responsibility appear when we consider that virtually all Americans today are at some time during their youth enrolled in high school and that most of them go on from school to work in an economic system which is so complex that more than 40,000 occupations can be currently identified within it. As our new industries (electronics, for example) develop and expand, and as automation brings in new processes, many additional types of vocations will arise.

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[1] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 1.

The Importance of Vocational Counseling

Vocational planning should not be thought of as taking place at any one particular time. It is a process that may well extend over a period of several years.

Early guidance programs in American schools gave major emphasis to the vocational problems of young people.[2] This was not accidental; the program developed in response to observed needs and student demands. The fact that students still need vocational guidance is made clear by the findings of surveys of their vocational goals and of follow-up studies of former students. These findings indicate that large numbers of students (1) aspire to enter occupations which are definitely inappropriate for them, (2) obtain training for occupations which do not provide enough job opportunities to employ them all, and (3) find that the training which they received in school bears little relationship to the jobs they subsequently obtain.

Aside from the element of unreal aspiration, these are external factors. Of more immediate concern to the school counselor are the pressing questions with which students confront him, of which those that occur most frequently are:

What should I prepare for?
What courses should I take?
What are the opportunities?
What special abilities are required?
Do I have these abilities?
Will I find the work interesting?
Will the rewards from such work satisfy me?
How can I make a wise choice?

Harold Baker and Arthur Brown represent typical students in need of vocational guidance. Both have made regular progress in school and appear to have no deep-seated personal problems. Yet they do have problems of goal-setting and educational planning.

Harold Baker came to the counselor in November to ask whether he should continue with a course in wood shop. He is in his junior year in high school and has made no definite educational or vocational plans. Wood shop is his first shop course. He lives in town with his parents in an apartment, has never worked with tools, has no idea what his capabilities or interests are in the shop, and does not know whether he likes mechanics,

[2] Jane Warters, *High-school Personnel Work Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, Chapter 3.

woodworking, drawing, or any of the other shop courses offered. His father has a hotel-service job in town, and his mother is also employed. Their interest in the boy's education seems to end with his keeping out of trouble and making passing marks in school.

Harold can meet college requirements, but he cannot decide whether he wants to continue his education or take a job when he finishes high school. He does not like classroom work too well, but he makes acceptable grades in whatever subject he takes. He has had no work experience and knows little about job opportunities and requirements. Until the present time he has taken the required courses and has chosen electives on the basis of immediate interest and association with friends without considering the need to choose and plan for a vocation. He has only recently realized that he will soon be out of high school and will have to decide what to do.

Arthur Brown is fifteen and is within one month of completing the ninth grade. He came to the counselor to inquire about high-school courses and majors which will help him to get a job when he graduates. He has no plans for going to college or continuing his education beyond high school. His father is a carpenter who makes good money when he works but is unemployed during much of the winter. The family's annual income is adequate to support them, but there is neither money nor interest to make college possible for the children. Arthur has two young siblings.

Arthur is a low-average achiever in school. He repeated the third grade because of difficulty with reading but is not considered a "flunker" and has never been a disciplinary problem. He has had jobs delivering papers and cutting lawns but has never given much thought to assessing his own interests and abilities. The local high school has an enrollment of about 900 students and offers a number of academic and vocational courses. Apprenticeship programs in several skilled trades can be worked out with the local apprenticeship committee. Arthur wants to plan now for intelligent use of his remaining three years in high school.

Effective counseling for such students as Harold and Arthur requires both data and method. Data are needed on the characteristics of each boy and on the availability, characteristics, and requirements of many occupations. The counselor's task is to help each student obtain needed information, evaluate it, and make decisions.

Accomplishing these things involves many activities other than those which take place in the counseling interview. It may be helpful to review here some of these outside experiences, a number of which were discussed in the preceding chapter: the student may take additional courses for exploratory purposes, may visit industrial plants and special schools and colleges, may have extended talks with out-of-school people who are actually

at work at the trades and professions being investigated, and may even take part-time employment in the occupation that interests him in order to get a close view of it.

Obviously, this undertaking may extend over a considerable period of time. An example may help to clarify the depth and breadth of this task: In many cases, the boy who hopes to be a doctor has had little contact with the field of medicine. The counselor may ask such a client to make several visits to nearby hospitals and clinics and to meet and talk with doctors and medical specialists; he may even arrange for the boy to obtain part-time employment in a hospital so as to experience in a more direct way the satisfactions and problems involved in a medical career. Too often, an aspirant to a profession sees only the rewards and is unaware of the hazards and of the drudgery necessary for success in any exacting field.

Another example is the student who is interested in engineering but has had no home or school experience with machines and mechanical processes. The counselor may encourage him to devote a year to industrial-arts and shop courses before committing himself to engineering, for these courses would give him the opportunity not only to assess the field but to judge the degree of his own interest and facility for acquiring competence as an engineer. Similarly, the girl who wants to become a secretary but has had no experience with clerical work can gauge the appropriateness of such work for her by taking the first courses in typing and stenography and by obtaining a part-time job in an office.

It is important to realize that occupational-information and self-appraisal data are products of experience. Much vocational information has been gathered, systematized, and made available in published form (as we have noted in the preceding chapter). The counselor can make effective use of these occupational materials, but they represent only a beginning resource. To this vicarious experience the pupil must add real experience and contact with people in various occupations in order to secure a valid, realistic, and personal basis for his decisions.

Throughout this period in which the client makes an extended effort to inform himself on his occupational potentialities and opportunities, the counselor is available to assist him in identifying important elements of his exploratory experiences and in evaluating both the emotional requirements and the learning demands of the vocations under consideration. In addition, the counseling process gives the student the benefit of the findings of the various techniques of examining school records and interpreting test data and informational materials. It is this latter element of the vocational-counseling process which will be examined in some detail here.

Occupational Information in the Counseling Process

Counseling interviews are usually composed of the following steps:[8]

1. Preliminary steps: establishing rapport and structuring the counseling situation.
2. Testing and test interpretation.
3. Acquiring a knowledge of a number of occupations suitable to the aptitudes, abilities, and interests shown by test results and experiences.
4. Narrowing the occupational field, planning the program in the light of occupational choice.
5. Reviewing progress.
6. Placement and follow-up.

Preliminary Steps

For each student in his group, the counselor will have a personal inventory that will contain all the data it is possible to obtain from a variety of sources. Prior to the first interview, he will familiarize himself with this material. If the records are adequate, he will learn a great deal about each student, since typically this information includes the student's family background, school progress, previous test data, personal characteristics, health records, extracurricular experiences, social and personal orientation, and leadership abilities.

In the first meeting with a student, the counselor establishes a friendly, pleasant relationship based on genuine interest in the student and his difficulty, as he would if it were a problem of personal-social adjustment which concerned the student. (See Chapters 6 and 7.) The counselor helps the student to feel at ease and encourages him to talk. The length of time necessary to build their rapport depends on the student, the complexity of his problem, and on the reputation of the counseling center. If the student knows that the center has helped other students, he is already somewhat prepared and receptive when he comes for the first time.

The counselor can usually tell the client early in the interview what can be expected from counseling, emphasizing that the counselee has the major responsibility for the solution of his problem. Also, during this first interview, the counselor explains some of the facts which a student should know

[8] Everett L. Shostrom and Lawrence M. Brammer, *The Dynamics of Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952, Chapter 3.

about himself in relation to possible occupational choice, and some of the data he should know about occupations in relation to himself. The non-academic student, for example, who is considering becoming a lawyer or a psychiatrist must be helped to realize that he will have difficulty in qualifying. Even the very able student must be shown, if he is choosing a profession that is limited in opportunity, that he is making a risky choice; the student who wants to be a diplomat or playwright or movie director or judge or concert pianist—even though he may show promise—must be helped to look realistically at the hazards of restricted demand and intense competition and the long struggle to become established which are involved. In some professions, too, religion, ethnic background, and physical blemishes may prove to be handicaps and must be honestly evaluated.

A good way of getting the student to participate actively from the outset in the counseling process is to have him fill in a personal-data sheet on achievements and plans similar to the one presented here. Although the counselor has this information in the student's folder, it is important to get the latter's view of himself and his accomplishments. A discussion of the information on the sheet can produce a fairly clear outline of the occupational problems the student faces and some indication of the number of succeeding interviews that will be necessary. If time allows, the pupil may take an interest inventory during this first interview; if not, the inventory may be taken during the second interview.

The counselor will be alert for symptoms of anxiety and tension from the very outset. If the student seems emotionally disturbed, the counselor will not press him toward immediate problem-solving. In some instances, several interviews focused on personality problems or referral to a psychiatric agency may be necessary before discussion of occupational plans or testing is advisable. For most students, however, occupational planning may start with the first interview.

Testing

Several interviews will be devoted to testing. Before he takes the tests, the counselee should understand the purposes of such tests, why he is taking them, and how they relate to occupations within the fields of his stated interests. When the student understands these things, his test results are a more reliable indication of his abilities than they would otherwise be. Furthermore, these explanations increase the student's ability to interpret test results accurately.

For the sake of economy of time and the number of tests given, the interest inventory should be given first. In the light of the results obtained from the interest inventory, the personal inventory, and the student's appraisal

INDIVIDUAL APPRAISAL SHEET

Name: School:
School Grade: Age: Date of Birth: Racial Descent:
Date: Counselor:

Scholastic Achievement

Indicate by an x your average grade in each subject.

	F	D	C	B	A
Agriculture					
Art					
Commercial					
English					
Homemaking					
Mathematics					
Music					
Mechanical					
Science					
Social Studies					

Work Experience. Indicate employer, duties, length of
service, earnings per week:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Social Activities

Hobbies
Reading Interests
Father's Occupation   Education
Mother's Occupation   Education
High-school Subjects Liked Best (1)   (2)
High-school Subjects Liked Least (1)   (2)
Vocational choice (1)   (2)   (3)

Plans for achieving goal set:

Plans for financing education beyond high school:

_____

_____

_____

sheet, other tests are selected. Among them should be a general academic-ability test and special tests in the fields of his interest pattern and highest academic achievement. A differential aptitude test should be given if available. These tests should be spaced so that results will not be influenced by fatigue.

TEST INTERPRETATION. There is perhaps no area in counseling in which lack of experience can produce such damaging effects as in the interpretation of tests.[4] A few of the typical mistakes made are (1) causing the student to confuse abilities and interests; (2) verbalizing or numeralizing without giving the student a clear picture of his abilities in relation to each other; (3) using inadequate norms; and (4) interpreting test results before the student is emotionally ready to understand the results.

Test results should be recorded in a graphic form, usually a profile. The student should be helped to gain an adequate picture of his achievement in comparison to other students of the same sex, grade level, and population group. Test scores should be recorded on mimeographed test-profile sheets that include the tests used by the counseling center. A sample test-profile form is presented here.

Test scores should be related to occupational requirements. It is of little value to the student to know that he has high spatial-relations aptitude without knowing the occupations requiring this ability. In addition, scores should be interpreted as probability scores. If there are enough test data in the student's folder, it is easy to make this point clear. It is usually wise to interpret above-average scores first, then average scores, and finally below-average scores. The student should receive from the interview the feeling that he has special abilities that are necessary for occupational success in specific fields rather than the feeling that he is deficient in abilities.

During this interview, the student is guided into comparing his stated occupational choice with his interests as shown on the inventory. He compares his academic achievement with his potential as shown from test scores; and where there are differences between achievement and potential, counselor and student should discuss the reasons for these differences. The student will gain a *knowledge* of his abilities during the interview; gaining an *acceptance* of his abilities may require more time.

Possible Areas of Occupation

Next the counselor and student bring together the student's assets and possible occupational areas. This is the phase of counseling in which the

[4] Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 21.

TEST PROFILE SHEET

Name:

Date:

Tests and Inventories	Norms Used	Percentile Scores
		0 20 40 60 80 100

Interest Inventory
  Mechanical
  Computational
  Scientific
  Persuasive
  Artistic
  Literary
  Musical
  Social Service
  Clerical

Academic Ability

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

Clerical

  *_____

Differential Aptitudes

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

  *_____

 Observations
*Indicate name and form used.

 Use reverse side for additional test information.

counselor can provide the student with an individualized information service. It is not enough that the student know his capabilities and limitations; *he must also know where his capabilities and limitations can be best applied for his personal advantage and what steps are necessary to obtain his objective.*[5]

In the review of test results and academic achievements, the counselor and student may make a list of possible occupations from which the student may choose an occupational goal. It is impossible, in discussing these occupations, for the student to remember all of the information given. Because of the time element, it is equally impossible to discuss all the qualitative characteristics of a number of occupations. By using an *occupational data sheet,* the counselor can furnish this information to the student from his source materials for a number of occupations. The counselor will bring to bear his knowledge of national, state, and local occupational information. The student will assume the responsibility for supplementing the information furnished by the counselor with information obtained from the occupational library, from teachers, and from adults in the community. The student may jot down pertinent information on the reverse side of the data sheet.

Relating Qualifications to Occupational Choices

Counselors often find it valuable to give students some practice exercises in relating personal qualifications to occupational plans. Several examples of such exercises are reproduced in the form of worksheets on pages 326-333. In using such materials, the main purpose is to help the student to understand the process of thinking involved. No attempt is made to select examples which narrowly categorize the student; in fact, it is often wise to pick examples which are quite outside of the student's own field of interest.

The student is now able to narrow down the number of occupations he is considering. The interview at this time is a "thinking together" relationship in which the counselor feels free to offer additional information which the student may have neglected to include. The student should be made to feel free to disagree with the counselor, giving his reasons for his opinions; after all, the ultimate responsibility for selection, as has been said, rests with the student.

Having made some selection of occupations, the student will then—with the help of the counselor—select some tryout courses toward these occupa-

[5] Tyler, *op. cit.,* Chapter 7.

tions.[6] (The student interested in auto mechanics, for example, will plan to take shop courses; similarly, the student interested in writing for magazines will plan to take courses in composition and journalism.) The counselor will arrange for conferences between student and teachers so that the latter may provide activities that will relate their courses to the occupations the student is considering. Such conferences will be especially helpful for the student who is having difficulty in making a choice and to the student who has unreal aspirations. (Field trips, training films, interviews, and books can in some cases help the undecided student to eliminate consideration of one vocation and focus with more confidence upon another. For example, the art student of mediocre ability may decide upon another vocation when he visits an advertising agency and discovers how much ability is taken for granted in the most obscure commercial artist.) The counselor and student will discuss casual work experiences for the coming summer months; and the student may make choices that will give him a chance to explore realistically a field he is considering as a possible lifework. (Taking a job as a porter or as a stable hand at a mountain resort, for example, will give a young man a chance to learn whether managing a dude ranch will give him satisfaction.)

Reviewing Progress

At the end of the school year, counselor and student will review progress, make a definite vocational plan, and decide upon further educational steps to complete the student's training. The immediate plan of action may include a series of visits and interviews that will enable the student to gain further insight into his chosen work; in fact, a summer job in his chosen field will provide a realistic exploration of the occupation he has selected. The boy who has tentatively decided upon raising cattle as a career might get a job as a farm hand to become acquainted with the menial chores that are basic to even the most scientific animal breeding; the girl who has decided to become a teacher or playground director might get a job as a junior counselor in a summer camp to get experience in dealing with young children. The plan for the next school year will, of course, include the courses that provide the training the student will need; if he plans to become an auto mechanic, for example, he will want shop courses in auto mechanics; similarly, if he plans to become a lawyer, he will need to take courses that will help him to meet college-entrance requirements. If the student plans

[6] E. G. Williamson, *Counseling Adolescents*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, Chapter 8.

to take engineering or scientific training in which the college curriculum is so rigidly structured in terms of required technical courses that little margin is left for electives in the arts and social sciences, the counselor may wisely try to guide the student into as many such classes in high school as requirements and opportunity afford.

Placement and Follow-up

During the student's senior year, he will confer with the counselor on employment in an entrance occupation. They will survey local employment conditions; the union requirements, if any; and the question of whether the student's job will be obtained through the industry directly, the local employment service, or the labor union. If the student is planning to enter college, the counselor will help him select the college appropriate to his needs, referring him to the proper sources for information on entrance requirements, expenses, courses offered, and other considerations, such as whether to go to a large university or a small one. This is not an insignificant matter; this choice may weigh heavily for or against a student's success in college. Currently, about one million students enter college each fall, and it is expected that about half will drop out before earning a diploma. This failure will not be the result of lack of ability; almost every student accepted by colleges which select their students is qualified to do college work. One of the causes for these dropouts is the failure of students to select colleges appropriate to their needs as personalities. The biggest single cause of this incompatibility of school and student is the size of the institution. Some young people are flexible enough to adapt to either a large or a small college. The shy, somewhat dependent person, however, is much more secure in the homelike atmosphere of a small school where he can receive a maximum of personal attention. The more aggressive, self-confident, and resourceful individual can succeed in the large institution. It has been found that students aiming at specific professions or particularly talented in extracurricular fields—athletics, dramatics, and others—do better at the larger colleges.

When counselor and student make educational plans, they select courses and activities which will help the student to prepare for the occupation of his choice. As we have seen, vocational counseling is a whole-school responsibility; this means, of course, that all departments and personnel cooperate in providing a wide range of vocational training. Furthermore, the school must continuously adapt its program to meet the needs of its students. Communities never become crystallized in terms of population and work opportunities; to serve its students, the school must constantly adapt its organization and program to meet the changing vocational needs of the students. This aspect of guidance is elaborated in the next chapter.

Summary

The task at which school counselors spend most of their time is helping young people plan their educational and vocational futures. This is not simply a counseling experience but a whole school program which touches the lives of all pupils, involves many school activities, and usually extends over a period of several years. The fact that students seriously need vocational guidance is demonstrated by the evidence that far too many choose professions for which they lack ability, select fields that are already overcrowded, or enter vocations for which their school training is inadequate. These are, of course, important considerations; but of more immediate concern to the school counselor are the questions which young people bring him—questions concerning what fields they should prepare for, whether they have sufficient ability, and what abilities are required.

The counselor's task is to help each pupil obtain the information he needs, think it through, and make a decision. Part of this task consists of administering tests, among them an interest inventory, a general academic-ability test, and special tests in the fields of the client's interests and highest academic achievement. Interpreting test results is a vital part of the counseling process, and relating test scores to occupational requirements is also important. The counselor guides the student into comparing his stated occupational choice with his interests as shown in the inventory, and his academic achievement with his potential as shown from test scores; any discrepancies are discussed. In many cases the counselor's problem is to help a student drop unreal aspirations, accept his limitations, and recognize his actual strengths. A next step is to help the pupil to obtain knowledge of the occupations that are, in the light of his assets, fields he can realistically consider entering. It is not enough for the client to know his capabilities and limitations; he must also know where his capacities can be best applied and what steps he must take next in order to reach his goal. In this phase of counseling the guidance worker provides an individualized information service.

After making a selection of occupations, the pupil—with the counselor's help—may select specific courses which serve as tryouts for these occupations and may plan summer work that will provide further opportunity to explore realistically the field of his vocational choice.

During the senior year the student confers with the counselor on employment in an entrance occupation; or, if the student plans to enter college, the counselor helps him to select the appropriate college and to gather information on expenses, requirements, and course offerings which he will need in making a decision.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. You are a high-school counselor. Herbert comes to you with a question concerning vocational choice. He says that he does not know what career to plan for and wants some advice. You take his school record from the files and find that it contains only the information given below.

How would you proceed in this situation?

Prepare a structure for the first interview.

What further data would you consider important?

Structure the rest of the counseling process as you would envision it.

HERBERT BLANK
Eleventh Grade

Educational History

	D	C	B	A
		Average Grade		
English				x
Math.			x	
History				x
Science				x
Social Studies			x	
Shop				
P.E.				
Spanish				x

Work Experience

Caddy at Rolling Hills Golf Course.

Stock clerk at neighborhood grocery (does not like dirty jobs).

AND PROJECTS

Dishwasher at local hospital.
Works at home.

Hobbies

Golf, tennis, reading, dancing.

Social Activities

Dancing, Broadcasters Club (which he helped organize). Likes to be with people.

Home Background

Lives with parents.
Has been in community four years.
Father is a salesman.
Mother is a housewife.
Brother eight years old.
Sister five years old.

2. It has been stated that educational-vocational counseling deals increasingly with psychological problems and that training in this field should include the study of psychotherapy and personality theory as well as psychometrics and occupational trends. Discuss this view of counseling.

3. Pages 326-333 provide material for exercises in appraising vocational fitness. Work through these practice exercises. Evaluate these materials as learning experiences for high-school students.

Prepare a similar worksheet, dealing with a person you know and a related group of occupations with which you are familiar. (A workbook made up of

forty such forms has been successfully used in group-guidance classes in one state.)

EXERCISES IN APPRAISING VOCATIONAL FITNESS

I

College Professor
High-school Teacher
Insurance Salesman

Harold, a high-school senior, is the son of a college psychology professor. He likes to read rather technical books. He does outstanding work in social science classes, where he has a chance to study human relationships and problems, making excellent charts and graphs to illustrate his reports. He has a clear understanding of social customs and cultural groups. His oral report in an economics class on "Youth and Life Insurance" was so well done that it was published in a life-insurance journal. In a conversation with the teacher afterward, Harold expressed an interest in the occupation of life-insurance salesman. His work shows initiative in research, an ability to think through a problem, and fluency of expression. In the other classes Harold exhibits a high level of capacity. Mathematics, biology, French, and English are subjects he likes especially well. In biology he is able to see relationships between ways in which the body functions and ways in which people act. He enjoys helping other students with their assignments. Though well liked by both boys and girls, he is rather shy and prefers study to extracurricular activities. His father would like him to carry on in psychology, following up some of his own research studies. However, he will finance Harold's college education regardless of his choice, as he carries an endowment policy for this purpose.

The *college professor in the social sciences* should eventually obtain a Ph.D. degree, which requires at least three full years of graduate study. He should enjoy spending long hours reading, studying, and analyzing facts about groups of people, how they live, etc., and be able to write effectively. In addition he must be able to "put across information" to other people in a stimulating and comprehensive manner.

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Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

The *high-school teacher* usually needs an M.A. degree, which requires five years of college training. He must enjoy reading and discussion. He must be patient and like to work with young people.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

The *insurance salesman* must be able to understand and interpret business activities as well as human relationships. He should have great initiative and be able to talk freely with all kinds of people. He must be so interested in his work that he can devote long hours to it. Because of the keen competition, the life-insurance salesman needs a certain amount of aggressiveness. While higher education is desirable, it is not required.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

Reasons:

1. Harold's father wants him to follow his steps in research and teaching psychology.
2. Harold has superior intelligence and likes to study.
3. He does outstanding work in his social science classes.
4. He likes to study customs and people in their geographic settings.
5. He makes excellent charts and graphs.
6. Harold is able to convey ideas and problems to other people orally.
7. He shows initiative in research and ability to think through problems.
8. He likes mathematics, French, biology, and English.
9. He is able to see relationships.
10. He is well liked by both boys and girls.
11. He has patience in helping others.
12. He is rather shy and not much interested in school activities.

II

Mechanical Engineer
Auto Mechanic
Service-station Attendant

George served for three years in the army, where he was an automotive mechanic in a transportation unit. While going to high school, he made a hobby of auto mechanics, completely overhauling three old cars. He showed

interest and ability in a vocational auto-mechanics course and received high grades in it. His grades in other subjects were generally below average. He once told his counselor that he liked to work with tools and with his hands but that he disliked "book work." While George was a senior, he worked part-time at a filling station close to his home. His employer said that he worked hard, was efficient, and gave good service. George, however, didn't like the job because many of the customers annoyed him. George's parents are very anxious for him to go to college and are financially able to send him to the state university. George is not sure about going to college but would like to please his parents.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

A *mechanical engineer* designs and often supervises the operation or manufacture of machines and equipment for producing, transmitting, and using power. He may specialize in such fields as automotive, or internal combustion, engineering. A bachelor's degree in engineering is required.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

An *auto mechanic* is a skilled craftsman who is able to overhaul and repair automobiles. He needs to understand the basic principles of auto mechanics and to use numerous hand and machine tools. Generally, he works alone and is responsible for completing individual jobs satisfactorily. Practical experience is necessary to work into a good position.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

A *service-station attendant* must be able to refuel and lubricate all makes of automobiles and make tire repairs and numerous minor adjustments on cars. He needs to be friendly, dependable, and able to get along with the public.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

Reasons:
1. Most of George's school grades are below average.
2. He dislikes "book work."
3. He likes to work with his hands and with tools.
4. He is not sure whether or not he wants to go to college.
5. He seems to have more mechanical ability than is required for a service-station attendant.

6. He is interested in auto mechanics.
7. He did well in a vocational auto-mechanics course in high school.
8. He did not like working at the service station.
9. He would rather work on his own than do "little jobs" for other people.
10. He wants to please his parents.
11. George's practical experience in auto mechanics and his army experience would help him in getting a job.
12. His parents want him to go to college.
13. His previous experience and ability would qualify him to be a good service-station attendant.

III

Secretary
Bookkeeper
Dictaphone Operator

Susan is interested in office work and has been taking a commercial course in high school. She has made good grades in bookkeeping and is good at operating calculators and other office machines. She also liked the typing courses very much and is a rapid typist. Although she has had two full years of shorthand, she cannot take dictation rapidly and still has difficulty in transcribing her notes. English has been one of Susan's favorite subjects. She can spell, punctuate, paragraph, and set up letters nicely on the page. Susan does not like to meet people because her nearsightedness makes thick glasses necessary. Susan sees quite well with her glasses but has to avoid too much strain on her eyes. Her hearing is unusually good.

One of the chief duties of a *secretary* is to take down in shorthand the letters, speeches, etc., of her employer, then to transcribe her notes. A secretary usually makes many personal contacts with many different kinds of people.

A *bookkeeper* works with figures all day, recording purchases, sales, and other dealings in record books, preparing financial statements, etc. So much close work, often under electric light, is likely to cause eyestrain. Since bookkeeping machines are being used so much today, the demand for bookkeepers is likely to decrease.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

The demand for good *dictaphone operators* is increasing. When a dictaphone is used, the employer records letters, speeches, etc., on records, and the dictaphone operator plays the records on her transcribing machine and types what she hears. A dictaphone operator must be able to type rapidly and to spell, punctuate, and paragraph correctly.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

Reasons:

1. Susan has made good grades in bookkeeping.
2. She is a rapid typist.
3. She cannot take dictation or transcribe her notes rapidly.
4. She can spell, punctuate, and paragraph correctly.
5. She does not like to meet people.
6. She must avoid eyestrain.
7. Her hearing is unusually good.
8. She is good at operating calculators and other office machines.
9. She is interested in office work.
10. She can set up materials nicely on the page.
11. The demand for good dictaphone operators is increasing.
12. The demand for bookkeepers is decreasing.

IV

Draftsman
Architect
Interior Decorator

James has shown real ability and interest in drawing. In fact, art and mechanical drawing have been his favorite courses in high school. He liked mechanical drawing better than his art courses because the teacher told him exactly what to do; he likes to work under someone's direction. James has done below-average work in mathematics and physics, but on the whole, his grades have been average. Although his parents would like to have him attend college, they would be unable to help him financially. James helped to plan the furnishings for his own room and the library at home, although his mother made the actual purchases. He does not like to shop.

A *draftsman* makes detailed drawings under the directions of an architect or engineer. Training for draftsman may be obtained by taking a two-year course in a public trade school in a nearby city.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

An *architect* makes original designs for homes, churches, and other buildings. A four- or five-year college course is required. Since an architect must do some engineering work, mathematics and physics are important subjects.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

An *interior decorator* selects and arranges furnishings for houses and other interiors. College training, followed by one or two years in a school of decoration, is desirable. At the present time, the field of interior decoration offers limited opportunities unless one has high ability.

Advisable_____ Not Advisable_____ Reasons_____

Reasons:

1. James likes to work under supervision.
2. His parents would like to have him attend college.
3. James selected the furnishings for some rooms in his own home.
4. James has done below-average work in mathematics and physics.
5. He has real ability in both art and mechanical drawing.
6. Training for draftsman may be obtained in a nearby public school.
7. The field of interior decoration is limited.
8. On the whole, James's grades have been average.
9. James does not like to shop.
10. His parents can give him no help with college expenses.
11. His favorite course in high school was mechanical drawing.
12. For a career in interior decoration, college training, followed by one or two years in a school of decoration, is desirable.

v

Receptionist
Stenographer
Social Caseworker

Jeanette, an attractive blonde of 17, is a high-school senior. She has a very pleasing personality, meets people well, and gets along with everyone. She

has shown outstanding achievement in commercial subjects, including stenography. The last two terms she has been part-time assistant in the school attendance office, where she has had to meet and work with parents, school authorities, and fellow students; keep records; and type and run the mimeograph machine. She was chosen for honors in school service. She has been a leader in girls' athletics during all four years of high school and held the office of president of the girls' athletic association. Her grades in subjects outside of clerical work are average. She is one of a large family and does not see any chance of going to school beyond one year at a business college.

A *receptionist* is one of the key people in a business office. The first impression a visitor receives of an office is given by the receptionist. She must be neat and courteous and have a friendly manner. Educational requirements are not high, but she should have some clerical and typing skill.

Advisable＿＿＿ Not Advisable＿＿＿ Reasons＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

A *stenographer* must have a thorough knowledge of the clerical skills. She should be able to meet people and get along with them. These jobs are often stepping stones to something better.

Advisable＿＿＿ Not Advisable＿＿＿ Reasons＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

A *social caseworker* investigates the physical and social environment of people who are in difficulty. She listens to their troubles, determines what aid they need, and writes up case reports. Social work is a profession, requiring full college training and superior social intelligence.

Advisable＿＿＿ Not Advisable＿＿＿ Reasons＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

Reasons:

1. Jeanette does not have funds for more than one year of college training.
2. She has been a leader in athletics.
3. Her grades in clerical work are A's.
4. She has worked as an assistant in the school office.
5. Her attractiveness would be an asset in a business office.
6. She has received honors in school service.
7. She is tactful and understanding.
8. Her grades in academic subjects are average.
9. Employment in social work requires a college degree.

10. With good background, stenographic skills can usually be acquired in one year.

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Part Four

THE ADAPTIVE

FUNCTION OF GUIDANCE

· 13 ·

Adapting the School to
Students' Needs

COUNSELOR-STAFF RESPONSIBILITIES

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

Schools exist to serve their communities by preparing children for useful, happy lives. In this task the guidance program plays a vital role by helping to make the school a place where all students can have experiences which help them to become mature, independent, self-directive individuals. The guidance program may be described as having three principal functions: an *adjustive* function of helping pupils to solve their personal and social problems, a *distributive* function of helping pupils to select courses and activities which will help them to achieve their aspirations, and an *adaptive* function of fitting the educational program to the needs of the students as revealed by the counselors' carefully interpreted data.[1]

Adapting school functions to the needs of the students is as important at the elementary-school level as it is at the secondary-school level. The activities suggested in this chapter, although ordinarily regarded as applying to

[1] See Vocational Education Staff of the California State Department of Education, *Vocational Education in California*, California State Department of Education, Chapter 7, 1945; and Grayson N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand, *Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools*, The Macmillan Co., 1941.

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the secondary school, apply with equal force to the elementary school. The fact that most of the illustrations of school practices presented here come from secondary-level situations indicates that the need for continuous adaptation of the elementary-school program has not been fully recognized by educational leaders themselves, and little data from the elementary grades are available. Yet, the activities described in this chapter—studies of the abilities of groups, case studies of individual pupils, reports of home visits and parent conferences, reports of case conferences involving groups of teachers—are equally applicable and feasible at the elementary-school level. In fact, many aspects of adaptation are simpler and more easily achieved in the elementary classrooms because the pupil is essentially under the guidance of one teacher throughout the school day and school year. Elementary-level teachers, of course, have the same need for outside assistance—the services of specialists in gathering and interpreting data, assistance in formulating learning experiences and in handling special problems—that secondary-level teachers have.

The adaptive function of guidance has been defined as a responsibility "to assist the school staff in securing, interpreting, and using information concerning the characteristics, needs, and opportunities of students."

The actual gathering of information is too large a task for the guidance personnel of a school alone; the cooperation of the entire school staff is required. Guidance workers, however, do gather certain specialized and intimate data, and it is their responsibility to interpret data to the other staff members to help them fit their teaching materials and methods to the revealed needs of individual students. To sum up briefly, the data which guidance workers collect can be classified as: (1) materials useful in developing a curriculum that meets the needs of the young people being served, and (2) information of assistance to teachers in adapting classroom procedures to the individual characteristics of their students.[2]

Data of the second type that are useful to the entire school staff include information concerning the following:

a. the readiness of individual students for various types of learning experiences;

b. individual achievement in various subjects;

c. special interests and abilities displayed by individuals;

d. personal problems that may result in learning problems;

e. personal goals and objectives of students in their educational and vocational plans;

[2] Jane Warters, *High-School Personnel Work*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, Chapter 5.

f. the types of personal problems that are important to young people in the school;

g. the problems faced by youth who either drop out of school or graduate, and the ways in which they believe that the school might have served them more effectively.

Counselor-Staff Responsibilities

We have already pointed out that the school counselor is a participating member of the total school staff. He represents the students and their needs and is responsible for making these needs known so that the staff as a whole can work toward meeting them. Current proposals of ways in which the counselor can serve student needs include the following:

1. *Making available to the staff useful information that may be obtained through contacts with parents, employers, and other members of the community.*

   On interviewing the parents of John (an eighth-grader), the counselor discovers that both parents work and have placed upon John major responsibilities for looking after the three younger children of the family. John must be home when they arrive from school—before 4 P.M. John feels himself under pressure. He cannot stay after school to participate in activities, nor can he be kept after school for any reason without causing him to have strong guilt feelings for neglecting home responsibilities.[3]

   This is an example of the sort of vital information which the counselor who is in touch with a pupil's parents can pass on to classroom teachers. Knowing such facts, teachers are enabled to understand their students and abstain from placing pressures upon them which damage self-esteem and achievement and produce resentful attitudes toward school. In fact, teach-

[3] D. Welty Lefever, Archie M. Turrell, and Henry I. Weitzel, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance*, Ronald Press, 1950, Chapter 4.

ers who have such information can help students achieve increased self-respect by using and discussing materials in class which enlarge on the value to young people of assuming responsible roles.

Many students do have home or vocational responsibilities of one kind or another which occupy so much of their time and take so much of their energy that school tasks must be confined to the school day if they are not to be seriously overburdened. The opposite, too, is often the case: many students have no responsibilities other than going to school and are at a loss for activity when classes are over. Such young people need to be guided into activities which give them satisfaction.

By transmitting this kind of information to classroom teachers, the counselor enables them to know their individual students better and to help them with specific problems.

2. *Assuming leadership in helping parents and community leaders to a better understanding of adolescents and their problems and of the school program for meeting these problems.*

A problem that occurs frequently in this area is that of conflict between the behavior expectancies of a student's parents and of his contemporaries. Often the parents come from Old World cultures in which the elders were far more authoritarian than in America today.

In the case of Sara, for example, both parents had come from Europe. Their rigid concepts of what constituted proper behavior for an adolescent girl came into head-on conflict with the demands made on Sara by her high-school friends. The parents felt that Sara was a rebel who was constantly seeking to obtain privileges that were beyond the rights of a child at home. But the girl's interests and inclinations were to be like her peers at school. To conform to her parents' ideas would make her "different." She was torn, thus, between her parents' demands and her friends' ways

of behaving, and the task of reconciling the two was more than she could handle.

The counselor is able to help in a situation such as this by talking to the parents and assuring them that their daughter is not immoral or wayward or headstrong because she wants to have dates to go to the movies and dances in friends' homes, because she wants the kind of clothes worn by her classmates, and because she wants to stay out as late as her friends do. Also, by informing the school staff of demands made upon Sara by her parents, the counselor can help the staff to understand that the restrictions the parents place upon Sara could result in periods of moodiness, resentment, and hostility.

3. *Providing leadership in making periodic studies of various aspects of community life, such as the following:*[4]

   a. the socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious groups served by the school;
   b. community services for youth in such fields as recreation, health, inspirational and religious life, and welfare;
   c. employment opportunities for young people within the community;
   d. the development of community-centered curriculum materials or units in cooperation with the teachers who are to handle them in the teaching process. Among such units may be orientation to the school, effective study habits and the use of the library, self-appraisal and self-understanding materials, educational and occupational planning, applying for a job, use of leisure time, good mental- and physical-health practices.

A study of the community, for example, may reveal that job opportunities have changed in the preceding decade. This has been true for many American communities. Areas in which work opportunities were

[4] Clifford E. Erickson, *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers*, Prentice-Hall, 1947, Chapter 14.

formerly predominantly agricultural have now become industrial centers, and young people must plan for industrial jobs. Patterns of living may change quite drastically as a result. Thus, into some small farm towns have come packing plants which work three shifts around the clock. Not only young men but girls, too, can find employment in such plants. Moreover, evening shifts and midnight-to-morning shifts can drastically change habits of eating, of rest, of socialization. Furthermore, the young people of such communities have more money to spend than young people had in small farm towns a generation ago and as a result have higher standards of living. Their patterns of behavior consequently will differ widely from those of their parents.

An example of change in another direction has occurred in the state of Mississippi: cattle raising has become a major occupation. The implications for curriculum are, of course, obvious: agricultural and science offerings must be broadened to prepare young people for various aspects of the cattle industry—as beef growers, as veterinarians, as range specialists, etc., competent to solve local ranching problems.

SCHEDULING THE COUNSELOR'S FUNCTIONS. In most schools, teachers and administrators have full schedules. If the educational objectives of a system are actually to be realized in the daily rush and routine of school, definite leadership must be provided; in the task of adapting the school program to student needs, this leadership must come from the counselor. In order to provide it, he must develop a work schedule which makes it possible. Many school counselors who do effective work in their individual counseling with students devote so much of their time and effort to this aspect of their responsibility that they neglect gathering data and consulting with curriculum experts to provide for the continuous improvement of the school program. This neglect is serious, for in the long run it is more important for the school to adapt itself to the characteristics and needs of students than for students to adapt to the school. The counselor must not devote so much time to working with individual students that he cannot find time to work, through teachers, with groups. He must always be available to help teachers make adjustments in classroom methods and relationships which will reduce the number of individual problems in the classroom; in fact, unless the coun-

selor is active in meeting this responsibility, he is not contributing realistically to the evolving curriculum of the school.

Counselor Services That Help the Teacher

Services designed to help the teacher may be conveniently classified as *research and service activities* involving studies of groups, studies of individuals, school articulation and orientation activities, and school-community-relationship projects. These various services require specialized skill, time, and facilities which the classroom teacher does not usually have.

Information which the counselor gathers in these studies can be distributed to teachers through the medium of a series of brief, illustrated bulletins. Another method of communication takes the form of meetings with individual teachers, or with groups of teachers, and with others involved in the educational program, to make presentations and to answer questions. Typical research activities of counselors are discussed below.

STUDIES OF INCOMING GROUPS. The incoming freshman class constitutes the raw material with which teachers will be working for the next four years. These young people usually come to the school relatively unknown, and a preview of their individual and group characteristics can be valuable to the staff.

Much of this information is already in the counselor's files, as it is routine, in most school systems, to transfer such data along with other pupil-personnel records. What is important is to transmit it to teachers. If the counseling staff is employed for a period prior to the opening of school—a practice to be highly recommended—it is possible for the counselor to study student records and prepare informational bulletins which describe the characteristics of the incoming group as a whole. Among the characteristics of students which are important for all teachers throughout the school to know are the following:

1. The age distribution.
2. The distribution by feeder schools.
3. The distribution of mental abilities as indicated by the tests that have been given either as a basis for admission or by the elementary schools.
4. The distribution of reading abilities.
5. The distribution of arithmetic abilities as indicated both by the achievement-testing program and by teachers' marks.
6. The number of students who come from various parts of the community; the ethnic composition of the group.
7. The educational plans of the group.
8. The occupational plans of the group.
9. The number who are new in the community.

10. The curriculum plans at the high-school level.
11. The favorite subjects indicated in the elementary-school program.
12. The least-liked subjects indicated in the elementary-school program.
13. The degree of acceleration and retardation in the group.
14. The occupations of parents.
15. The amount and kind of work experience which the group has had.
16. The amount of part-time work which the group is carrying on during the school year.

If data are available, it is helpful to include student preferences among social activities, athletic activities, recreations, types of reading, leisure-time activities, and preferred radio and television programs. The data should include the amount of time devoted to listening to the radio and looking at television and as much data as possible on interests, achievements, and aptitudes as indicated by standardized tests. For example, in addition to academic aptitude or verbal intelligence, the counselor may provide the distribution of aptitudes as represented by such tests as the *Primary Mental Abilities* or the *Differential Aptitudes*. Patterns of interests as indicated by interest inventories may also be included. Similarly, data from problems check lists or adjustment inventories would be helpful to teachers. The intent of such a report is to acquaint the teaching staff with certain important characteristics of the students. The data may be presented by means of tables, graphs, and simple descriptive language.

STUDIES OF DEPARTMENTAL GROUPS. For high schools which have departmentalized programs in which students make curriculum choices at the time of entrance, the counselor may make a study of student characteristics for each of the curriculum groups. Such a project, developed early in the school year, would provide the commercial department, for example, with data revealing the distribution of educational and vocational plans and the significant characteristics of its student group. Such studies for all the departments would provide the administrator with data on the various curriculum groups in the school and with criteria by which to evaluate the adequacy of the curriculum program as a whole.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SENIORS. The plans and problems of seniors and graduating classes constitute another area in which reports of group characteristics can be helpful. It is important that teachers throughout the school know the future plans, for work or schooling, of members of their classes; it is particularly important in the case of seniors. The data for such a report can be gathered by having seniors answer a questionnaire and also by using an informal or standardized list for the indication of problems.

An example of a common problem of high-school seniors is the military service of at least two years which awaits many of the young men. Another

problem many seniors face is lack of money to enable them to go to college; and this difficulty is often complicated by pressure to earn wages in order to contribute to the support of the family. Some seniors have educational aspirations with which parents are not in sympathy. Some seniors are highly gifted but do not know how to make practical plans for realizing their potentialities.

The problems indicated by those students who have been in the school for their entire high-school careers are particularly revealing to teachers and administrators of some of the general difficulties in relating the functioning of the school to the needs and characteristics of the students. One device for discovering such problems is to have each student write a paper on the subject of the ways in which the school has failed him. An item that occurs often on such lists is "lack of opportunity for social participation." When a staff finds that this lack has been felt by a significant number of their students, especial effort must be made to develop satisfying social activities. Similarly, if a large proportion of the student body expresses concern about academic preparation for college or for future occupations, department heads and teachers are wise to re-evaluate courses to determine how to meet this need.

THE GIFTED. Gifted students represent a generally neglected element in the school. Recent studies indicate that there is a substantial proportion of young people in every community who are capable of making exceptionally rapid progress in school and college work. Research supported by the Ford Foundation and similar groups has demonstrated that many students can complete both high-school and college education and become effective contributors to society several years earlier than the usual school sequence permits.[5]

Certain questions arise at this point: How can a school staff identify the gifted in its student body? What routine for reporting them should be employed? School guidance records should contain data which make it possible to identify extremely promising individuals in an incoming group of students. The earlier the gifted are recognized, the sooner teachers are able to plan work which will challenge the best abilities of such students. If information on who the gifted are does not exist in the records of a school, the counselor is responsible for developing techniques for identifying these students.

A number of methods are in use, the chief of which are tests, teacher observation, and records of outstanding achievement. All these measures of ability are interrelated. In the Terman studies of the gifted, the only method

[5] Fund for the Advancement of Education, *Bridging the Gap Between School and College*, The Ford Foundation, 1953.

of identification employed was individual psychological examinations.[6] The Terman studies indicate that the child whose achievement in the test situation is outstanding will demonstrate outstanding abilities in almost every other area of work and living. A major shortcoming of the results of the psychological test—the high I.Q.—as a means of identifying the gifted is that some children are unusually able in ways that are not revealed by verbal tests. Nonverbal abilities, therefore, must be discovered by the teachers who have most opportunity for daily observation of pupils. Unless teachers are alert and sensitive to unusual performance, some of the school's talented students will be overlooked.

The most obvious index of superior ability in a student is, of course, consistently high marks and honors in activities. Obviously the best guarantee of identifying all the gifted young people in a school is to use all of these methods—tests, observation, and study of the records. But identifying such students to the school staff is only the first step; the crucial responsibility of the staff is to enrich the program so as to challenge these abler pupils. This does not imply that children with high I.Q.'s are automatically to be given special treatment; rather, it means that all possible adaptations of the existing program are to be made to help gifted youngsters develop to the full extent of their promise.

Low-ability groups. Studies of the low-ability students in the school are necessary in order to meet their needs. Such students may be identified by a group intelligence test, by special studies of their academic records, by reports on their abilities and interests, and by interviews. An I.Q. of 85 or lower is sometimes set as the limit below which the scores indicate inferior ability.[7]

It is probably a just criticism of most contemporary secondary schools that they are focused on serving the academically able student. Even so, the counselor can do a great deal to help the school meet the needs of the low-ability group. Detailed information on these individuals is required, and the counselor can gather this data by studying their records, noting educational and occupational goals, work experiences, motor skills, range of nonacademic abilities, educational and occupational backgrounds of the parents, language difficulties, and real interests. A careful study of the record of a student with low abilities will in all likelihood reveal that he possesses strengths as well as weaknesses; in fact, some authorities believe that about 50 percent of even the mentally retarded students—those with I.Q.'s under 75—possess strengths. The counselor, by providing the staff with this information, makes

[6] L. M. Terman, *Genetic Studies of Genius*, Vol. I, *Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children*, Stanford University Press, 1925.

[7] Clifford P. Froehlich and John G. Darley, *Studying Students*, Science Research Associates, 1952, Chapter 11.

it possible for them to fit their methods and activities to the abilities and interests of this group. It is important to recognize, however, that even when such effort is made, other problems may still exist which must be dealt with. Low-ability pupils suffer from impaired morale, due to their lack of status, and this feeling of being inferior and set apart is especially acute when these young people are segregated in special rooms or schools.

Furthermore, the danger exists that the student whose performance record is inferior because of a language handicap or of cultural deprivation will be classified as a low-ability student. Increasing recognition of the fact that the effects of cultural deprivation must be considered in interpreting test results and school performance should result in fewer misclassifications of students. Many students make low test scores because they have been deprived of opportunity for experiences common to their more privileged contemporaries. Children of poverty-stricken families living in rural slums, for example, lack the broadening and awakening experiences which come from listening to radio and viewing television, from camping in national parks, from visiting big cities, from having access to books and magazines, from going to the theater and to concerts—experiences that are available to people of moderate means and that serve to make our national culture homogeneous. Children deprived of these experiences cannot perform well on tests which are based on knowledge and on mental habits gained from just such experiences; and yet, many of these children possess average or better-than-average intelligence. Recently, tests have been prepared which cross cultural barriers. One such test is a picture intelligence test—the *Davis-Eells Games*.[8] It is hoped that these tests will more accurately indicate the true potential ability of young people who are culturally deprived or have a language handicap.

DROPOUTS. Studies of dropouts constitute another service that the counselor can offer. If pupils drop out for reasons other than transfer, economic necessity, or family crisis, the school is failing to serve them. If students leave the school in great numbers because of lack of interest, greater appeal of other activities, discouragement, failure to make friends, or failure in various academic requirements, it is necessary for the school to evaluate critically the program that it is offering.

Studies of dropouts can be made in a number of ways. Almost every school has a routine check-out procedure which amounts to having the student who is leaving fill out a form, usually a short questionnaire on which the student writes his reasons for leaving school and describes briefly his plans for the future. Another method is an exit interview between a counselor and the student who is dropping out. Friendly concern shown by the counselor

[8] Allison Davis and Kenneth Eells, *Davis-Eells Test of General Intelligence or Problem-Solving Ability*, World Book Co., 1953.

can help the student to feel that members of the school staff are really interested in his welfare; and usually, if the counselor makes it clear that the interview is not intended to serve any disciplinary or administrative purpose, the student is likely to give more frank and detailed information on his real feelings and his real reasons for leaving school.

A summary of the results of exit interviews, prepared periodically, can provide useful information to the whole staff. For example, a study of a series of such interviews was made in a public junior college from which many students were dropping out after one semester of attendance. The study revealed that more than 50 percent of the dropouts felt that the school—which emphasized preparation for further college work—was not giving them definite training for the job opportunities that existed in the community. The implications were clear: in order to challenge and thus retain students, the school program must meet local demands—particularly the program of a school which operates beyond the compulsory-attendance age limits. Other junior colleges in the same state adapted their programs of instruction to meet local job requirements before the problem of dropouts developed.

STUDIES OF BASIC SKILLS. Studies of student achievement in specific skills constitute another useful kind of group report. Reading is a basic learning tool in the schools, and virtually every teacher is concerned about the range of reading ability in a given class. Most schools have data available from various test instruments measuring reading ability. Teachers in almost every subject area find it helpful to have such information about individual pupils and about whole groups. Outside reading, homework, and many other school activities should be assigned according to the pupil's reading skill.

Similarly, data from studies of arithmetic and other quantitative skills should be made known to the school staff as a whole. Such data provide teachers with a basis for adapting materials to meet class and individual needs; they also provide information and stimulus for examination of the curriculum and for planning additional curricular experiences within the school.

WORK EXPERIENCE. The area of student work experience is frequently neglected by schools. Many young people who are in some ways failures in school are successful in their after-school jobs. They are finding more effective preparation for life careers in part-time and summer jobs than in the school program. Although the school is only one of the agencies responsible for helping young people to become economically mature, it must take into account out-of-school work experiences both because of their significance for the student and because data on these experiences provide material for evaluating the community's program for its young people.[9]

[9] Erickson, op. cit., Chapter 15.

Working on a job is, of course, in itself a valuable form of education. Many communities have no systematic knowledge of the extent to which its young people are participating in work activities. Full awareness of how much responsibility young people are taking in community life can serve to stimulate not only richer vocational education in the school but a greater variety of job opportunities. Furthermore, those students whose work outside school is impairing their education can be discovered and given the guidance they need in order to maintain a balance.

LEISURE ACTIVITIES. Students' use of leisure time is another area that deserves attention from the school. Studies of students' activities during the out-of-school hours help teachers to relate the school program to these outside learning experiences. It has been found that many students devote as much as twenty-five to thirty hours a week to radio or television programs, which are, after all, learning experiences, whether good or bad. In some instances, the school may discover a need for a general program of study with parents regarding young people's out-of-school activities. The task of the counselor is to gather, present, and interpret information on this subject which the school may need to revise its program; and, through his contact with students, to evaluate such school effort in terms of its effects on their growth and their academic progress.

HEALTH AND MATURATION. The area of health and physical-maturation is another field that is frequently neglected by the school staff because of lack of information.[10] Techniques have been developed for gathering data on growth and maturation factors and for setting standards for students of various ages.

Health is a major objective of education, and data concerning health attitudes, health habits, and health problems should be known throughout the school. Many elements of the school program should be related to the physical status of the individual. Obviously, the tall, lanky youngster who has had a heart disease should not be urged by the coach to play football; and the quiet, hard-working girl who is subject to hay-fever attacks that keep her coughing much of the night should not be dealt with sternly by an instructor when she seems withdrawn and uncooperative. The anxious, sensitive student who flushes and flusters easily will perform far more ably under praise than under censure. The anemic child, too, requires more patience than his more alert and enduring neighbor.

The development of an adequate health program is the responsibility not of the school doctor and nurse alone but of the total teaching staff. The counselor can aid them immeasurably by systematically gathering data and making them available.

[10] Robert H. Knapp, *Practical Guidance Methods*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953, Chapter 6.

Counselor Studies of Individuals

In the many areas in which information on whole groups is valuable, information on individuals is equally valuable. Thus, individual study of the new or transferred student is as important as group study of the incoming class; study of the behavior and discipline problems of individuals is as important as comparable study of groups.

INDUCTION OF NEW STUDENTS. One of the student's first needs on entering a new school is to get acquainted with someone—to know and be known by at least one faculty member. His progress in schoolwork and in social relations can be facilitated if data about him as a learner and a social being are gathered in some systematic fashion and used by the school to meet his needs.

Many schools observe the practice of having the counselor interview the new student to become acquainted with him, to plan his program, and to take certain positive steps regarding his induction into the school. The counselor may himself accompany the new student to his first classes, or he may ask a student to do so. The counselor may also prepare a brief, informative note to the various teachers with whom the new student will be studying, detailing basic information about the young person's academic readiness and his personal and social needs.

BEHAVIOR AND DISCIPLINE. Part of the counselor's responsibility is to work with teachers on behavior problems. In handling these problems, he uses the information he has gathered from records and tests and from personal contact in the counselor relationship with the student involved. These data the counselor shares with the teacher, and, in turn, he obtains from the teacher an understanding of classroom conditions which may affect the adjustment of the pupil. Improving a student's adjustment is a two-way matter, involving both environment and the individual; some change is usually necessary in both. It is not always the student's attitude alone that must be modified in order to help him achieve a better relationship with a teacher in a classroom situation; it may be equally important to make changes in the classroom and in the teacher's attitude toward the student.[11] Usually the student must be helped to gain insights about himself and to improve some of his attitudes and behavior; but often the teacher, after gaining more knowledge about the student, can effect changes in classroom demands upon him that will enable him to be more contented and successful in his schoolwork.

In dealing with behavior problems, the counselor and the teacher work

[11] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 10.

as colleagues, mutually concerned to help all students achieve the goals of education and to develop the learning experiences which will further this purpose.

A behavior problem does not necessarily result in a discipline problem, such as noise, mischief, and horseplay; many behavior problems have symptoms of a widely different nature. For example, one eighth-grade girl was found by her counselor to be failing in her academic work although she possessed above-average abilities. When he investigated, the counselor discovered that she had, by sheer accident in routine scheduling, been placed with men teachers only. He learned that she did not relate well to men and that her feelings in her various classes were strongly colored by fear reactions. She was not participating successfully in her courses. Even during her out-of-school time, the counselor learned, she was constantly worried because she was failing, because she felt that she did not fit in, and because her problems were becoming aggravated. She looked back longingly to the preceding year—when she had had a sympathetic woman teacher to whom she had related well—as a time when she had been safe and happy. The solution in this case was, of course, fairly simple; since there were several groups at her grade level, she was placed with a woman teacher (as basic teacher) who would give her the security she required.

Teachers sometimes attempt to handle behavior problems by disciplinary means which create further problems. Typical among these means is the use of grades as a disciplinary tool, with consequences that frequently hinder and damage the learning process. For example, a teacher who loses patience with a pupil who has been disrupting the work of the class by talking too much or too loudly may tell him that he is to be punished by receiving an F for the day's grade. A boy who comes to gym class without his suit may be told to leave and be marked down. A pupil caught cheating on a test may be given a failing mark for the test. The F is used in these cases as punishment. But is this a proper use of grades?

When a counselor and a student plan the student's educational or vocational future, they study the records together; and one significant item in the records—an item that will count heavily in indicating whether the student has promise of success in college—is his grades, the record of his achievement in courses. Grades are a measure of an individual's ability to learn in school; they should not be influenced by extrinsic factors. Keeping grades "pure" in this respect is especially important today, when our state colleges are so overcrowded that a strong movement has developed to raise entrance standards. It is even possible, in these circumstances, that one or two C's which might have been B's can prevent a student's being admitted to the college of his choice. Grades are evaluated in registrars' offices as a measure of a student's ability to learn, not as indications of the degree to

which he is cooperative and amiable, his attitude, his emotional balance, and his peer-group status. Yet even a final course grade in some cases reflects the teacher's approval or disapproval of the student. Obviously, this practice can result in injustice.

Other factors, too, enter the situation. What effect does the practice of using grades as a disciplinary tool have upon students' attitudes toward study? Is it wise to allow an aura of unpleasantness, of burdensome insecurity, to become attached to learning? Let us consider this case: A mathematics instructor, provoked by misbehavior in a class, assigns the whole group a double portion of homework—twenty-five problems to be turned in next day. Not all the members of the class are guilty of the mischief that brought on this disciplinary action, but all are given the penalty. Furthermore, the teacher says that all twenty-five problems must be completed—not just fifteen or twenty, but *all*—and that failure to complete the assignment will result in a grade of F. The innocent members of the group naturally dislike being lumped with the guilty and punished; but all, guilty and innocent alike, resent the stringent stipulation that every one of the twenty-five problems must be worked. For some of the pupils the assignment requires two hours of effort that night, in addition to other homework.

Next day, the instructor teaches through the whole hour and dismisses the class without asking for the homework. He has forgotten it. It is likely, of course, that on second thought he regretted the whole thing and wished to forget it. In the meantime, however, some students have acquired still more reason to dislike mathematics. Some have completed the assignment under parental pressure; others completed only part of the assignment and dismissed the whole experience with a shrug as one of the necessary miseries of going to school. When such an incident causes some pupils to receive F's which influence their final course grades, those final grades are clearly not a true indication of ability.

It is easy, of course, to understand why the threat of an F is used as a disciplinary tool: an instructor cannot, no matter how outraged or frustrated he is by pupil behavior, resort to a physical expression of his feelings. He must use some other technique, and the threat of a failing mark is often an effective weapon. But the ultimate effects of its use must be borne in mind.

Enforcing classroom discipline is not a simple or pleasant task, and mistakes are all too easy to make. It seems wise, when inflicting penalties, to err on the side of leniency.

Case Conferences

The planning and carrying through of case conferences—meetings of all

those staff members concerned with a specific student's problem—is in many schools the counselor's responsibility.[12] Such conferences are held for a variety of purposes: to gather data for understanding a student's behavior; to discuss ways of adapting the teaching program to the needs of an individual student; to pool the ideas of the various people concerned—teachers, counselor, school psychologist, administrators, perhaps the parents, the school doctor, the school nurse—to plan an extensive program to improve the adjustment of an individual student. The purpose of such a conference is to gain insights—and perhaps to formulate a plan for handling the student's problem—based upon the contributions of all the participants thinking together. The counselor is obviously a key person in the conference because he brings data from the records and from his counseling relationship with the student under discussion, and because he can best represent the attitudes and feelings of the young person who requires help.

Case conferences are held not only to deal with problems of behavior and adjustment but also to study individual students having academic difficulties. The trained school counselor is expected to be an educational diagnostician. He should have at hand and be able to use various tools and resources for discovering students' educational deficiencies and their specific difficulties in study or learning and for interpreting these findings to the teacher. Perhaps it should be emphasized that the counselor's role in such a situation is not to tell the teacher how to teach but simply to inform her of his specialized findings about a student in trouble. Moreover, the case conference is not a one-way street but a two-way information-sharing procedure; the counselor is fully aware that he is not the only person who is acquainted with a specific student: many teachers know members of their classes very well, both as learners and as individuals, and can give the counselor information.

Community Relationships

The success of the school guidance program is conditioned in many ways by the relationships that exist between the school and its staff and the community of which the school is a part. The individual student is not merely a student; he is also a member of a family and a member of the community, and his personal problems have their roots in all these elements of his background. To solve problems that have their genesis outside the school, the counselor and school staff must have an understanding of the student's total environment—of the pressures that exist in his home and community as well as in the school. To develop attitudes and patterns of behavior that make for better adjustment, young people must have learning experiences that involve many aspects of community living. If members of the school

[12] Jane Warters, *Techniques of Counseling*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955, Chapter 7.

guidance staff are to help young people to grow toward self-direction and maturity, they must be familiar with the home and community influences that contribute to such growth. In fact, it is important that *all* members of the school staff understand home and neighborhood influences on their students—the socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious pressures that help shape their personalities. (See Chapter 5.)

It is unrealistic to assume that, in a large school district, members of the school staff will be able to visit the homes of all their counselees. It is possible, however, for staff members to become acquainted with adults who typify important elements of the community, to visit enough homes to obtain a broad sampling of the types of family environment existing among the various groups served by the school, to acquire broad pictures of aspects of community life from observation and from documentary sources, and to learn a great deal about the home influences which help condition the behavior, attitudes, and values of their students. To cite some extreme examples: the children of migrant farm workers can hardly be expected to have the same attitudes toward the school and the community that the children of old, well-to-do families have; migrant children, whose school experience has often been interrupted and who have changed schools often, cannot be expected to have the proficiency in skill subjects that comes only from the uninterrupted, carefully structured building of concepts. Language handicaps, too, are difficult barriers for many youngsters to surmount in their early years at school. Young people who come from farms on which their help with chores is necessary, and in many cases burdensome, may come to school with neither energy for nor interest in study. Students whose families belong to religious sects which seem outlandish to most of their contemporaries are under a psychological handicap in achieving social acceptance and status. This is an especially difficult burden if the family practices customs, observes modes of dress, and keeps holidays that are different from those of the community. Teachers must be aware of the problems imposed upon students by such factors in their background if they are to accept all students with sympathy and insight and help them achieve full growth.

In most communities there are resources outside the school which offer various types of assistance and opportunity to young people. Such resources are:

> medical and health services;
> sources of financial and welfare assistance;
> church groups which young people can join;
> community efforts to provide social and recreational centers, community
>> dances and community playground activities and community theaters;
> sources of part-time and full-time employment.[13]

[13] Erickson, *op. cit.,* Chapter 14.

The school staff should, of course, be familiar with these various resources and have a congenial working relationship with the adults responsible for them.

The school administrator is responsible for keeping the entire school program functioning smoothly and effectively. He has a right to expect faculty members, particularly counselors, to familiarize themselves with the characteristics of groups making up the community and the resources of help and opportunity it offers young people. It follows, of course, that the administrator must encourage his staff to make this effort and must provide time and finances for it, so that the effort is more than a mere pious wish, more than a haphazard and accidental good intention. Ideally, members of a school staff should familiarize themselves with the community they serve through a thoughtfully planned campaign which involves such steps as:

a. a plan for collecting information about the community which will be made available to the whole staff;

b. assuming leadership in organizing and conducting special community studies; and

c. assuming leadership in developing a good working relationship between the school and other local youth-serving agencies.

The role of the counselor in such a staff program is to provide leadership and coordination. The counselor's first activity in this aspect of his job may well be the collection of information which presents a cross-sectional picture of the community and which can be kept up-to-date. This information can take a variety of forms; it may, for example, consist of a directory of people who take a particular interest in young people or in career opportunities for young people. It may consist of a list of local citizens who have indicated willingness to come to the school to talk to students about specific opportunities, or who would be willing to have groups of students sent to them to talk over problems or observe real work situations. This information might also include systematic collections of data gathered from studies of the total community or some aspect of it.

The possibilities for collecting material of this kind are many. Useful areas of focus may include recreation, health, employment surveys, job placement, welfare, service clubs, juvenile courts, probation activities, and others. All these activities contribute directly to the program of education for youth.

In one community, the school guidance director served as the secretary of a coordinating council made up of key representatives from both public and private schools, the juvenile court and the police department, the recreation department, the health department, the employment service, the churches, service clubs, and the central trades council. This group held regular meetings to coordinate the efforts of all the agencies involved. Youth and adult

needs were discussed and projects planned. Case conferences dealing with individuals were held. Case-study data were presented by the appropriate agency, often the school, and the members of the group combined their efforts in solving problems. Plans were made for follow-up and continuing reports. In this way, both duplication of effort and the "run around"—the other danger of multiple effort—were avoided. Such activities served not only corrective but also preventive and constructive purposes.

The community-employment and work-experience survey is another useful project. It not only provides for placing youth who need jobs immediately but also obtains data for realistic vocational planning for all young people. (Suggestions for planning such surveys are discussed in Chapter 11.) Some communities are extending this employment survey to include the discovery of service activities and nonpaying jobs which give young people experience and a feeling of belonging and contributing. Much too little has been done in this area.

The school counselor should also keep himself informed about recreational activities. Education for leisure is an important educational objective, because recreation serves definite developmental and therapeutic purposes. A community survey of recreational facilities and habits provides new ways of meeting the needs of clients. The development and maintenance of a directory of youth services also is a rewarding undertaking. Since no one person or agency can meet the needs of all young people, intelligent and effective referral is an important technique of the counselor. It can be accomplished only when current and reliable information is available. The lack of such information, unfortunately, is a major deficiency of many guidance programs.

Other useful and important community projects will occur to the counselor who seriously considers the problems of his clients. The education and guidance of young people require the continuing best efforts of everyone in a community; obviously, the counselor who never leaves his office can never be fully effective.

Summary

The adaptive function of guidance has been defined as the task of assisting the school staff to secure, interpret, and use information concerning the characteristics, needs and opportunities of students. This information—which guidance workers amass with the cooperation of school staff and community—can be classified as (1) materials useful in developing a curriculum that meets the needs of the young people being served, and (2) information

of assistance to teachers in adapting classroom procedures to the individual characteristics of their pupils. To gather this information, the guidance worker makes periodic studies of the socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious groups of the district, of community services for young people outside of the school, the employment opportunities available to them, and so on.

Guidance services can help teachers through such specific studies as: a detailed examination of the incoming freshman class, securing information on such matters as age, background, mental ability, and reading and arithmetic abilities, which can help teachers to adapt in advance their curriculum and methods of teaching the new students; studies of characteristics of departmental student groups, securing data which make possible evaluation of how adequately the various curriculums are meeting pupil needs; studies of the plans and problems of the graduating class—teachers who know the dilemmas and aspirations of the outgoing students can focus their efforts to help them realize their hopes.

Gifted pupils are frequently neglected by schools. Guidance workers can identify these individuals by tests and observation, make them known to the staff, and initiate effort to develop curricula and courses to challenge such young people. Similarly, counselors can identify the low-ability groups, study their characteristics, and supply the staff with data which will enable teachers to fit methods and activities to the abilities and interests of young people who are mentally retarded or culturally deprived. Counselors can also make studies of students who drop out which reveal the ways in which, in student opinion, the school is failing them and from such findings develop guides for forestalling further drop-outs by more closely meeting pupil needs. By studies of students' reading and arithmetic skills, work experiences, leisure activities, health, and maturation, counselors can note trends and needs and develop the basis for organized effort to correct deficiencies.

Counselors can also make studies of individuals, gathering data about students as learners and as social beings; such knowledge can help the staff in facilitating the pupil's progress in school and in social relationships. Counselors cooperate with teachers in handling behavior problems, exchanging information with the instructors involved and with them deciding on classroom changes and other methods of promoting a happier situation for students in difficulty. Counselors play key roles in case conferences, too, bringing information and interpreting test data to the staff group which meets to decide on ways to improve pupils' educational progress.

Home and community influences strongly condition student morale, and the counselor who seeks to help students must have knowledge of any out-of-school pressures upon them. The guidance worker who can help a school staff to fuller, more insightful knowledge of the community helps them to do a better job of teaching.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. City X has 50,000 people. It is an industrial community from which only 10 percent of high-school graduates go to college. How should these primary facts affect the kind of high school maintained? What other data would you want?

2. Assume that a secondary school has both a full-time assistant principal and a full-time counselor. In such a setting,
a. How should disciplinary problems be handled? If a teacher has occasion to send a student to the "office," should he be sent to the assistant principal or to the counselor? Justify your position.
b. How do the duties of counselors and administrators interrelate in meeting disciplinary problems? Prepare that part of an organization chart which would delineate these functions.

3. The counselor usually keeps two files of data regarding individual pupils. One is marked *Confidential*. What kinds of data go into this file? Would you give information from this file to a teacher or principal? Justify your position.

4. The proper storage and distribution of cumulative-record data constitutes a problem in many schools. Assuming that these records should be used by teachers, how can they be made available to teachers?
a. Unless the school has a specific plan for distributing data, many teachers will make no use of the available information about students. Prepare a plan for a school that you know well.
b. What kind of in-service training program would you use to initiate this plan?

AND PROJECTS

5. How should guidance data affect curriculum development in a school? Consider the implications for the curriculum of giving an interest inventory to all ninth-grade students.

6. Assume that a school has administered an anonymous personal-problems check list to all the students.
a. How would the findings relate to curriculum development?
b. Suppose the survey reveals that a large number of students indicate that boy-girl relationships constitute a serious problem area. Outline several steps that the school might take in meeting this common need.

7. How does the guidance program relate to extracurricular activities? What would be the role of the guidance worker in the development of an appropriate program of student activities?

8. A counselor in a large high school (3,000 students) prepared a report on the 800 incoming ninth-graders which was distributed to all teachers. The data for the report were secured from elementary-school records and a student questionnaire.
a. Indicate the value of such a report from the point of view of the teacher.
b. Prepare a one-page questionnaire designed to secure data for such a report.

9. Keep a diary covering one week of your activities in the classroom or counselor's office. How closely do they parallel the activities listed in this chapter?

10. How many of the activities listed in this chapter are compatible with your interests?

11. How many of these activities require training beyond that usually given to teachers?

12. Do you feel that you have the necessary qualifications to perform these activities?

13. Plan an annual program of work for a high-school counselor. Lay out major projects and emphases for each month of the school year.

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· 14 ·

Applying Individual-Inventory
Data to the Instructional Program

THE PROCESS OF studying the individual student has been described in detail because it is the most important work of a guidance program. But the effort of gathering data is wasted if the information obtained is not actually used in the instructional program, in counseling, and in reporting student progress to parents, colleges, employers, and other out-of-school and post-graduate agencies.[1]

In the modern school, teachers, administrators, and others concerned with the instructional program, both curricular and cocurricular, make wide use of individual-inventory data. Curriculum planners, in their effort to make the school curriculum meet the needs and challenge the interests and capacities of their students, must have increasingly complete and reliable data on the characteristics of the group being educated. Even the classroom teacher, if he is to plan group and individual learning experiences that promote optimal development, must "learn his learners"; only when a teacher has a thorough understanding of the young people who sit before her can she supply the keen motivation that makes possible the most effective learning.

[1] D. Welty Lefever, Archie M. Turrell, and Henry I. Weitzel, *Principles and Techniques of Guidance*, Ronald Press, 1950, Chapter 4.

Uses of Individual-Study Data

Individual-study data are used in:

1. Facilitating early acquaintanceship between pupil and teacher.
2. Course planning in terms of group needs.
3. Increasing individualization of instruction.
4. Developing new courses to meet student needs.
5. Restructuring student-teacher relationships.
6. Developing clubs and activities which will serve actual student needs.
7. Improving grade placement and promotion.
8. Reporting to parents.
9. Identifying students with special problems.
10. Promoting mental health.
11. Evaluation.
12. Counseling.

Facilitating Early Acquaintanceship

Individual-inventory data help the teacher to get acquainted with her students early in their relationship. Even a brief survey of the personnel records provides an instructor with information which enables him to identify individual students early in the year, to address them by name, to seat them strategically, to help new students to make friends, and in general to get the work of the new year under way with a minimum of confusion. In the secondary school, the teacher deals with five or six groups of twenty or more students each day, and often much time is lost before she gets to know them well enough to teach effectively. Many instructors use a simple "Let's get acquainted" card on which the student reports a few selected items of personal data which help the teacher to identify him. These cards are filed by classes, and the teacher checks through them daily.

In some schools the guidance staff prepares brief thumbnail sketches, based on the school records, which are duplicated and given to each student's teachers before school opens. The preparation of these sketches requires careful selection of items and intelligent synthesis, but the procedure has many values: it promotes continuity in the educational program of each pupil; it helps to identify those who are likely to need special treatment; it furnishes the teacher with a basis for planning learning experiences and establishing secure relationships early in the year; and it provides valuable data for evaluation.[2] Here is an example of such a thumbnail sketch:

[2] Roy DeVerl Willey and Dean C. Andrew, *Modern Methods and Techniques in Guidance*, Harper and Brothers, 1955, Chapters 5-11.

Tommy is a slight, lonesome, unathletic boy who recognizes the cultural values of the social, athletic, and brawny boy. His interests and leisure-time activities center around studying, reading, practicing the piano, and other pursuits characterized by withdrawal and unsociableness; many boys around him are interested in hot-rods, girls, and sports. He would like to be like the other boys.

Tommy is a nonconformist. It bothers him to see other boys disregard manners and social graces. He sees himself as a student of merit; he has found acceptance by adults through his excellent scholastic achievements. He gives little indication that he is depressed about his present status, but it is clear that he would like to be more proficient in social skills. If his sphere of experience and skill could be widened—either through added physical growth or through varied activities—he might be better satisfied with himself now; and he might, as an adult, become less rigid and less critical of others.

Tommy indicates that many of his decisions rest finally with his parents. His mother seems to dominate the scene; and, as to many boys in this period of development, his father seems to him to be stupid.

Nevertheless, Tommy is cheerful and quite often enthusiastic. He cannot be considered a problem—in fact, by adult standards, his is model behavior—but he does have his problems. He will probably meet the challenge of adolescence intelligently. It would seem that the school should make every effort to guide this boy into appropriate activities.

And another example:

Andy is a boy of average ability who feels somewhat restricted by his father's demands. He appears to have made a good adjustment to a severe home situation. To classify him as an unstable, moody, and rather unpredictable person somewhat at odds with adult authority and himself does not seem inappropriate when one considers the emotional strain in his family and his rapid physical growth. Any encouragement which can be offered by the school in the form of personal attention would seem to be well spent on this boy, who has made such strides in adjusting to the world about him.

Still other schools provide teachers with pupil-data sheets which report important facts in abbreviated or coded form. From them the teacher may learn from one line of symbols such factors as academic-capacity rating, average marks, physical handicaps, vocational interests, socioeconomic status, language difficulties, reading record, and out-of-school interests and activities. The obvious advantage of this device is that of providing the classroom teacher with information in a minimum amount of time; the disadvantage is that coding limits the range and precision of such reports. Another practice is to have teachers study personnel folders in a pre-school-opening workshop. The use of school-record data for helping teachers become acquainted

with their students is of vital importance in giving students a good start in the academic year. Reference to data about individual pupils should, of course, be continuous throughout the school year for every aspect of guidance services.

Course Planning in Terms of Group Needs

The secondary-school teacher must not only be well prepared in her subject-matter field but must have an understanding of the individuals whom she must teach, since the needs, interests, abilities, and general readiness of students form the basis of selection and organization of materials in a course. In other words, the characteristics of the student group determine the objectives, scope, and sequence of content and learning activities. This is why good teaching requires insightful planning.[3] In planning courses it is important to have the following data for each student:

Age
Grade level
Previous courses and marks achieved in them
Educational objectives
Family background
Economic status
Aptitude index
Extracurricular interests
Out-of-school activities
Reading interests and ability

In order to be meaningful, the data for each class should describe not only averages but also ranges and other peculiarities of the characteristics studied. A ninth-grade social-studies course, for example, must provide reading material not only for students whose reading is average for this grade level but also for those students in the group who are at the extremes of reading ability —at the fifth-grade level and at the eleventh-grade level.

Because much of the teacher's time is devoted to group activities, group assignments, group motivation, and group evaluation, the information which enables the teacher to strike common chords of interests and needs and to build on common experiences is important in her planning. In a community by the sea, for example, in which men in almost all the families earn their livelihoods in the fishing industry, most students would be well motivated to learn about ocean currents, migrations of schools of fish, canning fish products, new methods and techniques of converting waste fish products into important fertilizers, distributing fish products, inventions in marine

[3] Jane Warters, *High-School Personnel Work Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, Chapter 8.

equipment, conversion of fishing boats to new types of fishing and to defense purposes, and so on.

A number of schools are undertaking to supply teachers with group data in time for the planning of courses. Although some high schools prepare reports describing the freshman class for which the information is derived from elementary-school records, tests, and counselor observations and interviews, and although other schools prepare class summaries of test results, few schools have made serious effort to provide teachers with reliable and useful summaries of group characteristics. Yet it would appear that well-oriented group instruction is clearly more efficient than individual instruction of a comparable quality.

Increasing Individualization

Adaptation of instruction to individual needs is possible within this framework of orientation to group needs. In order to achieve such individualization, the teacher needs information about individual characteristics in the same areas that are reported for the group description. Both sets of data are important in achieving individualized treatment. For example, the student with an I.Q. of 108 in a group with an average of 116 is in a quite different position from the same student in a group with an average of 94. The student who has a job for three hours each afternoon in a group in which all the students are employed is in a quite different position from the student who has a similar job but is the only one in the class who has such responsibilities.

Systematic collection and distribution of such data would increase the efficiency of the learning process. It has been said that the good teacher devotes half of her time to studying students and the other half to doing what her findings indicate should be done.

School counselors use various devices for getting information to teachers. Short sketches and group descriptions have been mentioned. Some schools circulate the cumulative folder for each student to his various teachers. This practice is of value, but it takes a great deal of the teacher's time, and the data are subject to erroneous interpretation. Some counselors hold conferences with each teacher early in the year in order to discuss the needs of students for whom special adaptations may be necessary. Other counselors hold case conferences with all the teachers of a student who has specific problems in order to provide information and to agree upon a unified approach to working with him. This conference may be quite different in procedure from the case conference regarding a "problem" student: the former is essentially an information-giving conference, whereas the latter is a combining of effort to think with the student in solving his problems.

Data which are worth gathering are worth making available to those responsible for guiding learning experiences. Yet caution must be exercised in circulating tentative and isolated findings. For example, making known to teachers I.Q.'s based on a single group test without supplementary data on other measures and characteristics, and without a synthesis of all clues, may do more harm than good. Few schools have provided the personnel and technical communication devices which would solve this problem.[4]

Developing New Courses

Public schools are committed to serving the needs of all students. Curriculum reorganization, based largely on student needs, goes on almost continuously.

Many school systems have developed active orientation programs after studying the adjustment problem of students entering high school. Freshmen may be placed in orientation classes, for example, in which they study an especially prepared handbook. A typical table of contents for such a handbook might be:

I. School history and tradition
II. People to know: Trustees
             Certificated personnel
             Noncertificated personnel
III. Schedules: School calendar, etc.
IV. Know-how: Fire drills
             Lockers
             Bus schedules
             Nurse's office
             Lost and found
             Attendance
             Grading
             State laws
             Parking
             Cafeteria
             Conduct
V. Student government
VI. Future plans
VII. School activities
VIII. Award system
IX. Songs and yells

In orientation classes, various trips are organized to familiarize students with the school facilities. Group testing is also done in these classes.

[4] Lefever *et al.*, *op. cit.*, Chapter 6.

Many junior high schools have developed a modified core-course plan when studies indicated that their pupils were having trouble in adjusting to six or seven teacher personalities. Units and courses in occupational information have been shifted upward in some high schools because of findings on the instability of early vocational planning. In response to discovery of student needs, special courses have been developed, such as the senior-problems course and courses which provide information on personal problems and give opportunity for group discussion of such matters.[5] Even long-established courses may be modified in the light of discovered needs; for example, one city added classes in remedial reading and arithmetic for high-school seniors when it was learned that such special help was required.

Reliable facts on student needs are not obtained by guesswork in an isolated office but must be derived from systematic studies based on sound techniques: from intensive personal contacts, from listening and observing, from examining, synthesizing, and drawing inferences from the comprehensive data provided by a full-scale application of methods for studying individuals.

Restructuring Student-Teacher Relationships

Effective learning in a classroom situation is perhaps more dependent upon personal relationships than on content, interest, scope, sequence, or level of difficulty. Most important is the feeling-tone of the relationship between teacher and student.[6] An effective learning-teaching relationship may be described as a thinking-together activity in which the teacher operates both as a fellow explorer and as a resource person. In such a situation teaching is ever a new experience, never a repetition of previous experience. But to teach in this way demands of the teacher more than an attitude of acceptance and permissiveness; it demands that the teacher be able to identify with the student, to know him as a person—and this in turn involves not only the application of data but also the continued use of techniques of individual observation and study. The teacher who uses data from the school record for this purpose also becomes part of the process of discovering new pupil data and making new interpretations.

In the training of secondary-school teachers, content is emphasized. If students are sent to their classrooms as groups of strangers, most such teachers are likely to ignore everything in their teaching but subject-matter content. If, however, school personnel practices provide a wealth of individualizing data about each student, teachers are far more likely to see them as

[5] Max F. Baer and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information*, Science Research Associates, 1952, Chapters 14-16.
[6] Willey and Andrew, *op. cit.*, Chapters 17 and 18.

distinct personalities with unique and vital needs which the instructor can be instrumental in fulfilling. Such information provides a basis for reorganization of teaching methods, which is perhaps more seriously needed than content reorganization.

Developing Clubs and Activities to Serve Needs

Many individual and group needs can be served better through clubs and informal interest-group activities than through classroom activities. Such a program is more flexible than a course. Many schools have developed a wealth of these activities, particularly in social and avocational areas. Typical are model-airplane clubs, dramatic clubs, noontime dances and film showings, hot-rod safety clubs, broadcasters' clubs, chess clubs, rifle clubs, literary clubs, cycling clubs, and so on. Opportunity to develop skills and to perform are provided by such activities as publishing a yearbook, playing in bands, singing in choirs, and participating in debates. The athletics program, of course, involves many students in significant activity, especially where there are intramural schedules.

Indication of interest in and need for specific kinds of projects and activities comes from the analysis of individual-inventory data. The attitudes developed in a school which is alert to individual needs also contribute to encouraging student and teacher leadership in organizing and maintaining such activities.

Improving Grade Placement and Promotion

Because the school attempts to place each student in a grade and class in which he will find emotional security and intellectual challenge, effective grade placement and promotion require consideration of individual adjustment and progress. Age, maturity, and scholastic achievement are important factors in such placement, although other factors which must be considered are individual differences in interests, special abilities, health and physique, out-of-school learning experiences, family background, and problems of personal adjustment. Data on all these points are provided in the individual inventory.

Reporting to Parents

The traditional report card, limited to a quantitative measure of subject-matter achievement, gives parents an altogether incomplete view of the progress of a student; moreover, such reporting tends to focus the attention of students, teachers, and parents on the competitive aspects of academic

progress. The result is that important mental-hygiene aspects of growth in self-direction, socialization, emotional security, and development of unique abilities are slighted.

Many elementary schools are making extensive use of the parent-teacher interview to supplement the written report. Time is set aside for this purpose, and appointment schedules are set up. Junior high schools which operate on a core-course program have developed similar practices, though at this level the parents meet the core teacher, who interprets the reports of the other teachers involved. Senior high schools encourage parent contacts with the school counselor. In special cases, of course, other teachers may be called in for informal conferences with the counselor or with both parents and counselor. To be fully effective, such conferences with parents must be based upon ample data on all aspects of the pupil's individual adjustment, progress, and promise, for mere subject marks and negatively oriented conduct reports will not suffice. It goes without saying that cooperative attitudes and willingness to listen are essential on both sides.[7]

Since comprehensive and reliable data are important, the school that has a systematic program for studying the individual is ready to approach parent conferences with assurance. Parents, on their part, are almost invariably eager to have objective information on their child's abilities, achievements, and future possibilities and to share their views and resources with the school in order to help meet his immediate needs and to facilitate intelligent planning of future programs for him. Each such conference, moreover, adds to the ability of the school to educate the pupil; and an important by-product of teacher-parent relationships is a cumulative readiness in the community for cooperation with and further development of the school.

Identifying Pupils with Special Problems

The first step in providing such special services as medical attention, social welfare, remedial instruction, and special programming is the identification of those who need such help. Unfortunately, many who need special help will not take the initiative in obtaining it. Proper use of the individual-inventory system should so identify these students that none of them is neglected or overlooked; all school staff members should cooperate in reporting symptomatic behavior, and the counselor must devote time to auditing the records periodically. Alertness to this need can result in detecting and correcting many problems before they become severe.[8] In the elementary grades, for example, early discovery of eye or ear malfunc-

[7] Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization,* Prentice-Hall, 1949, Chapter 20.
[8] John W. M. Rothney and Bert A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student,* Dryden Press, 1949, Chapter 2.

tions may result in remedial treatment in time to prevent pupils from suffering permanent damage. Similarly, friendly alertness to orienting the shy, confused pupil who comes from a small, informal, rural school into a large, overcrowded, city school may prevent his acquiring an emotional block against classroom learning. In many schools, too, the percentage of dropouts can be reduced by purposeful efforts to help such vulnerable groups as migrant or Spanish-speaking students: concern for the morale of these students and efforts to give them support and encouragement will increase the number who remain in school to graduate.

Promoting Mental Health

The school that has an active program for studying individuals is in a good position to create conditions conducive to mental health and to remove hazards to mental health. Such a program implies a general attitude of interest in and respect for the individual student. It makes a serious effort to ensure that each young person is known, feels that people are seriously interested in him, and has a daily program which holds his interest, challenges him, and promises him success.

In any large group of people there are some who have severe emotional problems and some who are mentally ill. Early identification and treatment of such individuals not only increases the likelihood of rescuing them from possibly tragic consequences but also contributes to an atmosphere of wholesomeness and security for teachers and other pupils. The counseling services can provide resources for helping young people with personal problems, for treating individuals suffering from minor anxieties and tensions, and for referring to clinics pupils who suffer from mental illness. The latter must be treated by specialists, and good cumulative records are of real help in such cases.[9]

Evaluation

Modern education is concerned not merely with the acquisition of information and academic skills but with the development of the pupil as a whole personality. Each course and each activity is designed to contribute to this goal. Development must be evaluated in behavioral terms, and both group and individual data are important. An analysis of high-school graduates in terms of their competence, adjustment to reality, confidence, and readiness for the next step, whether it be college or a job, constitutes a more

[9] Leona Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 1.

penetrating evaluation of the work of the school than the average score on a college-entrance examination.[10]

Few schools have attempted evaluation in these terms. It would require cumulative data for the entire school period, covering all the areas of behavior, achievement, capacity, home background, and experience at home, at work, and at school. Such data would be accumulated by means of the materials and techniques described in this chapter. A study of the complete record of each pupil as he leaves school would furnish tentative answers in such an evaluation, and a program of follow-up studies would produce supplementary answers. Only in such terms can education be wholly evaluated.

Counseling

We have already had occasion to point out that effective counseling on educational, vocational, personal, and social problems requires ample and reliable data. Counseling without information leads easily to prejudiced advising, superficial introspection, and conferences that are a waste of time. A permissive attitude is an important essential; but counseling would be merely an unfocused, hit-or-miss effort without accurate information.

Summary

A systematic program for studying the individual is the indispensable basis of a functioning guidance program. The development of good records—comprehensive, cumulative and yet usably concise—is vital to this program. This individual-study process involves the home, the school, and the community—parents, teachers, and associates. It requires appraisal of health and development, achievement, interests, aptitudes, behavior, problems, and attitudes. Among the techniques and resources utilized are medical reports, school marks, teacher observations, achievement tests and inventories, rating scales, autobiographies, sociometric devices, and interviews.

All data are interrelated and are subject to errors of measurement. Interpretation involves synthesis and clinical judgment. Personnel records are not ends in themselves: they are useful to the extent that they help the student to grow in self-understanding and to be understood, and to the extent that they help the school to plan an educational program which meets the dynamic needs of the individuals served.

[10] *Ibid.*, Chapter 12. See also Willey and Andrew, *op. cit.*, Chapter 22.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. As a teacher of eighth-grade mathematics, what facts about a child's home background, interests and activities would help you to individualize assignments?

2. As a teacher of English composition, list facts about each student in a class which would be of primary import in the assignment of theme topics.

3. Similarly, list facts about each student that would be significant for assignments in an industrial arts class in woodworking or a home-making class.

4. Assume the role of the vice-principal responsible for discipline. What facts about an individual who has been repeatedly tardy would be important in dealing with his problem?

5. Analyze the four lists you have made. What data are important in all four situations? What data are of unique significance in each of these roles?

6. Secure a copy of the pupil-record forms used in your school or in a school to whose records you have access, and analyze it for coverage of the items of information indicated in question 5.

7. Assume that the data are available in the records. Prepare a plan for making the information available to staff members. Discuss the placement of the records, the clerical service needed, and other devices and procedures which would facilitate and encourage use of school records by teachers.

AND PROJECTS

8. Find out what courses or organized student activities have recently been added to the curriculum in your school. Trace the development of these new activities. Were they initiated as a result of consideration of student needs?

In what way did students themselves participate in discovering and making these needs known?

What systematic procedures for analyzing students' needs were employed?

9. Because counselors have such large case loads and have limited time, they can effectively counsel only a fraction of the student population.

How can the counselor identify those students who most need help? Should he depend on referrals by teachers and other school officials? Should he depend on the student to recognize his problem and come for help? Should he depend on parents to ask for help for their children? What systematic procedures can you suggest for identification of those students who need counseling?

Discuss this problem, using as a point of reference a school with which you are familiar.

10. Prepare a plan for in-service teacher education which would implement the conclusions you reached in question 9.

11. What approach to a philosophy of education and of curriculum is implied throughout this chapter and in all of the questions raised above?

Relate this approach to the philosophical orientation of your school as implied by its objectives and curriculum.

To what extent does your community accept such educational objectives?

12. What are the implications of a systematic attempt to discover individual student interests, abilities, and needs for marking and grade placement? In your discussion of this question consider the concepts suggested by the following words:

competition	failure	intrinsic
standards	acceleration	desirability
norms	retardation	homogeneous grouping
social promotion	maturity	

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Group Activities in Guidance

MOST SCHOOL GUIDANCE programs make use of a combination of group and individual procedures. Group procedures have certain clear advantages, of course; the group method provides a maximum of service with a minimum of staff and expenditure. Both for reasons of economy and for want of sufficient fully qualified personnel, group procedures must be used if guidance services are to meet the needs of all students. The savings of time and money are obvious in the light of the fact that in some phases of his duty the counselor can work with a group of thirty students instead of seeing each of them individually.[1]

[1] Jane Warters, *High-School Personnel Work Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, Chapter 8.

Purposes of Group Activities

In many schools, group guidance activities are organized in a home-room program in which selected teachers are given responsibilities and facilities for working with a group of pupils on their nonacademic, social, and personal problems. This procedure has advantages other than economy: many students feel more secure in the self-study process and participate more actively when in the company of peers than when working alone with a counselor. Moreover, group activities provide the individual with a chance for actual group life and for direct experience in relating to other individuals—in becoming a social being. This ability to relate to others is a basic element of adjustment; recent studies in group dynamics indicate that in many cases the individual sees himself in a new light through the stimulating influence of the group. Participation in role-playing, for example—both as a player enacting roles and as an observer criticizing those roles and evaluating them with the group—enables an individual to see himself at a degree of remove which saves him from feeling personally on trial and yet enables him to develop new perspectives on his own values and impulses. This is an important aspect of learning how to deal effectively with reality. Group activities (discussion, role-playing, problem-solving, etc.) help the individual to become aware of previously unrecognized problems; and at the same time, they provide the relief and comfort that comes with recognition that all people have problems.

Before we examine some often-used types of group guidance activities, it may be helpful to analyze basic objectives in some detail.

To assist young people in the recognition of unique and common problems.

A young person tends to feel that the problems of adjustment that he encounters are peculiar to him as an individual. Many such problems, it is true, *are* unique and can be effectively resolved only on an individual basis; for the most part, however, people have similar problems. Recognition of this commonality gives support and relief to the disturbed student. Group discussion of common difficulties helps each worried young person to discover that the same troubles, in varying degree, come to almost everyone: that he is not alone in suffering agonies of self-consciousness when his immigrant parents talk their native language in public, or when his father argues with a waiter over a dinner bill, or when he has to deliver a talk

before the school assembly; that he is not alone in feeling self-conscious about his carroty red hair or the braces on his teeth, or in wishing that the face he looks at in the mirror could be remodeled along more attractive lines; that he is not alone in tasting sour gulps of fear when he sees a hostile-faced gang waiting for him at the corner, or when fever and muscle cramps bring the doctor and thoughts of polio; that he is not alone when at times he wishes that younger brothers or sisters could be whisked off to oblivion by some obliging Pied Piper, or in having moments when for two cents he'd hop a freight going west—when he is sure, positively sure, that his parents are the most inconsiderate old fogies on earth.[2]

Group discussion—the process of candid sharing of experience—is a mental-hygiene activity. In it the teacher plays a crucial role, for she is not merely a source of information but, more importantly, the group leader who develops a permissive atmosphere, who creates an accepting, non-judgmental climate of discussion in which young people can feel free to air personal problems and feelings. The therapeutic qualities of such a group experience have been demonstrated in mental-hygiene studies. In essence, the participating student comes to realize that each human being has periods when he is confused and despondent, when he is faced with crises that seemingly have no solution, and that many of his friends have gone through exactly the same kinds of desperation that have robbed him of his peace—but have overcome their difficulties in one way or another. He comes to realize that he, too, with patience and effort, will find a way through his dilemmas. When an individual understands this, he has made real progress toward emotional stability.

Group counseling in this way not only helps directly in problems of student adjustment, the improvement of which is the over-all purpose of the counselor, but also contributes to making students ready to accept individual counseling.

To provide information useful in the solution of a problem of adjustment.

In order to make intelligent decisions, students must obtain information.[3] The information they need may range from simple directions on how to obtain items of school equipment to information on the motivating factors which underlie human behavior. Group guidance offers an opportunity to

[2] Roy DeVerl Willey and Dean C. Andrew, *Modern Methods and Techniques in Guidance,* Harper and Brothers, 1955, Chapters 18-20.
[3] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor,* Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 9.

provide such information in an efficient way. In many schools the home-room teacher has the responsibility for developing a systematic approach to the study of educational opportunities both within and beyond the school and for providing data on occupational possibilities and requirements (see Chapter 11). Much work has been done in developing curriculum materials and techniques for obtaining educational and occupational information. It is the responsibility of the counselor to see that this body of knowledge is available to every teacher who needs such material and that she is helped to meet the needs of her group for such information.

To provide opportunity for group thinking in regard to various common problems and purposes.

The process of discussing individual problems in the group situation is helpful in many ways. In addition to helping students to recognize common problems, this process is therapeutic in still other respects, for group discussion provides opportunity for the release of emotional tensions and repressed feelings. Group thinking about common problems creates a situation in which students learn to live by the democratic process: it provides young people with an opportunity to think with one another about common problems, to discover the facts that lie behind the problems, to explore tentative solutions, and to test the conclusions that are reached.[4]

Because such discussion may deal with problems of student government, student manners, student codes of behavior, and student values and outlooks on life, it can serve as an important stimulus to serious thinking. Such discussion in the classroom brings the concept of self-responsibility to the students' attention. It creates opportunity, too—as issues are worked over, class by class, and arrangements are made for drawing together the thinking of various groups—for the opinions of the majority to be expressed and to become actively effective in the life of the school.

Group thinking serves an important function in helping individuals to make personal decisions on such vital matters as further education and careers, for it enables students to learn how their peers think and feel about various trades and professions, to discover which ones have status and which are considered ignoble, which seem to provide broad vistas of opportunity and which are thought to be dead ends. A student who aspires to a vocation because his parents cherish it or because his closest friend admires it may, after learning how his classmates feel about it, reorient himself and aim at a more realistic or more promising and respected goal.

[4] Gustav Bychowski and J. Louise Despert, *Specialized Techniques in Psychotherapy,* Basic Books, 1952, pp. 85-103.

From class discussion, a naive or inexperienced youngster may learn from his friends methods of gaining the information necessary for purposeful planning and methods of solving the problems all of them face. From continued and frequent discussion students have opportunity for thorough interchange of ideas on the attitudes, prejudices, and tensions felt by various socioeconomic groups. This release of tension and exchange of experience may be of sufficient assistance for many students to enable them to behave on a mature level. For others, it will produce an awareness of personal problems with which they will need individual help. Students who have physical handicaps begin to realize what roles they will have to assume in their group life; young people who are afflicted with fears and anxieties, with compulsive traits of personality, gain some awareness of their difficulties. These beneficial effects of group counseling are of great significance in facilitating the work of the program of individual counseling.

To provide opportunity for experiences that promote self-appraisal and self-understanding.

In addition to problems in social and emotional areas, each young person faces the vital necessity of appraising his own interests, abilities, and opportunities. In many schools, the group-guidance unit serves as the vehicle for the administration of tests, questionnaires, inventories, and other instruments which contribute to the data bearing on abilities, interests, and personal planning. (See Chapters 8, 9, and 10.)

Such appraisals usually involve a study by each individual of his own strengths and weaknesses. They may include an analysis of interests as indicated by his leisure-time activities, by his work experience, by his achievement in school, and by the results of systematic, standardized interest inventories as well as materials ordinarily used to obtain objective data on abilities, achievements, and aptitudes.

Group counseling thus not only provides opportunity to administer the testing program, which gives the student information he vitally needs, but also develops *readiness* for participation in the program and for interpretation of the findings. Interpretation within the group will, of course, necessarily be limited to those aspects of the material that can be managed in a group situation. This means that the teacher will interpret for the students the characteristics that the specific test attempts to measure and will give them some general information on the meaning of scores at various levels. This general explanation must, obviously, be followed up with specific details in the individual interpretative interview.

Many mature students do actually gain, in the group process, a clearer

understanding of their own abilities, interests, and personality traits; on this basis many are able to plan their own futures sensibly. When this happens, time is saved in the guidance program and the counselor is able to devote more of his effort to individual work with students who need prolonged and specific assistance.

To lay the foundations for individual counseling.

We have already stressed the fact that counseling is facilitated by the client's readiness for it. Young people are far more likely to seek counseling of their own volition if they have already experienced the release of anxieties and tensions that typically results from discussion of problems in a permissive atmosphere, and if they have come to understand the role of the counselor and the nature of the counseling process. If group activity is to be a fully integrated part of the guidance services of the school, it must be directly related to the provisions for individual counseling. This means again that the school counselor has an immediate responsibility for assisting in the coordination and planning of group activities.

Group discussion should be adroitly guided. The questions to be discussed and the materials to be used should be carefully chosen. Among the principles by which discussion topics are selected and presented are the following:[5]

1. *The topics and units included in group guidance activities should be based upon problems of real importance to students.* Note the "to students" in this sentence. It is important to emphasize the fact that the data for thinking with students in either an individual or group situation must come from the young people themselves.

An occasional problem census made within the school can result in lists of matters which are of significant concern to young people. Such studies may be extensive formal investigations made with large groups of students through the use of standardized questionnaires, check lists, or other instruments designed for the purpose; or the studies may be conducted informally by teachers or counselors through interviews with selected students. Such direct interviews may be supplemented by conferences with parents and with people who work with young folk in the community situation. Probably both these methods, formal and informal, should be used together: a formal questionnaire or check list type of study should be accompanied

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[5] Donald E. Kitch and William H. McCreary, *Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools,* Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, XIX:8 (Dec. 1950), p. 19.

by informal interviews with individual students and by conferences with adults who work with young people.

The topics finally selected for group discussion might well be those which represent matters of concern to the majority of students. When put to use, these questions should be presented in such a manner as to challenge students' interest, for it is important to get as many members of the student group to participate in discussion as possible.

Participation is important not only as a follow-through activity but also as an initiatory activity. Students should be brought into the planning stage of these group-guidance activities. Many schools make use of the experiences of one year to plan activities for the following year. As a result, the group guidance program is in a continuously evolving pattern of activity.

2. *It is important to consider the maturity level of student groups when assigning topic units to various grade levels.*

Changes in interest are rapid during adolescence, and matters which may be challenging to youngsters at one maturity level may prove to be quite uninteresting to them at a higher or lower grade. For this reason, scheduling of group activities should be accompanied by a careful examination of the available data on the typical development patterns of secondary-school age groups.

It is true that the general areas to be covered by the group guidance program may not differ in purpose from age level to age level; specific topics and activities, however, may differ greatly. The data for planning in the light of such necessary differences are available in the studies of psychologists, students of child growth and development, and the recorded observations of many teachers. Perhaps it should be emphasized again that, to the extent to which the student group itself can be brought into planning these activities, fewer mistakes will be made in the "pitch" or placement of a particular topic or area of study.

3. *The decisions that students are expected to make in connection with their school experiences must be considered in planning group-guidance activities.*

For example: At some point during their secondary-school experience, students are expected to decide whether they plan to take a college-preparatory course or some other type of course. Group guidance activities should be arranged to provide the information that is needed in making such a decision wisely. Such information should come at the proper time: if this decision about college must be made in the tenth grade, the information should be provided to students while they are in the ninth grade.

The strategic time for providing information and for group discussion is the time when making decisions is a problem. When the group is considering choices in education beyond high school, informational materials should be brought directly into the classroom. Referring students to a nearby library is an inadequate procedure.

Teacher Requirements

Group-guidance activities are assigned to teachers who have the training and personal characteristics necessary for success in this field.

It is true that the teachers who are drawn into the program should represent a variety of subject areas; nevertheless, some selectivity on the basis of personality and training is possible and desirable. Teachers chosen for this work should be genuinely interested in the adjustment problems of young people and should have given evidence in their relationships with students of what has been described as a guidance or student-personnel point of view. Group-guidance teachers are not so much information givers as group leaders; hence they must possess the personality qualifications as well as the training required to lead effective group discussions. They must be able to create a permissive and accepting relationship within the group, an atmosphere in which students willingly and candidly bring into the open issues which are vitally real to them. Teachers who possess these qualities but who lack knowledge of discussion techniques can be assisted in the in-service training program to develop the specific skills required.

In general, teachers assigned to group-guidance activities should acquire:

1. Familiarity with studies of typical educational, vocational, and personal-adjustment problems of young people.
2. Familiarity with basic principles of mental health.
3. A knowledge of the basic principles used in administering, scoring, and interpreting group tests and inventories.
4. A knowledge of the purposes and uses of the cumulative record.
5. An understanding of the principles of group structuring, group relationships, and group techniques such as panel discussions, discussion groups, sociodrama and role-playing.

If the group-guidance activity is the vehicle used for the administration of the test program and for the collection of the personal data which become a part of the school cumulative record, then the teachers must themselves be inducted into the correct administration of group tests. The counselor in charge of the program should be responsible for providing direct in-service

training in the administration and interpretation of the instruments to be used. Experience indicates that the best way to learn to administer and interpret a test is to take it oneself. Thus, in preparation for this phase of group guidance, the staff members themselves might become test subjects. The experience will help the teachers participating to acquire some understanding of the amount of test interpretation possible in the group situation and of the nature of the questions—whether voiced or unvoiced—which might arise in a student's mind and require individual interpretation later.

Group-guidance leaders must understand the purposes and uses of the cumulative record. Especially if guidance groups are used as a basis for the development of records, systematic procedures must be developed for maintaining the uniformity of such records throughout the schools. To be effective, group leaders may need to learn how to keep such records. The in-service training program can include experience in record-keeping.

A knowledge of the principles of group structuring, group relationships, and group techniques such as panel discussions, discussion groups, sociodrama and role-playing is essential to the teacher responsible for group-guidance activity. In role-playing, problem-solving, and sociometric procedures, the teacher's role is that of guide rather than informant.[6] In recent years, startling progress has been made in this area. Materials and research studies are available for use in in-service training programs. To be most fruitful, the in-service training program for the staff should follow those principles of group discussion and should be grounded in those dynamics of group thinking which it seeks to impart to teachers. The in-service training program can serve, then, not only as an informational preparation but also as an experience in participation which will provide motivation for effective work with students.

Types of Group Guidance

In general, elementary schools do not have such rich guidance programs as secondary schools; many of the group-guidance activities routinely found in the secondary schools do not exist in the lower schools. The reason for this is in part the fact that in typical elementary schools the classroom teacher has the advantage of retaining the same group of children all day and thus has a better chance than the high-school instructor to know her pupils well. Even so, problems exist in every class; some children have

[6] C. Gilbert Wrenn, *Student Personnel Work in College*, Ronald Press, 1951, Chapter 11.

intense emotional difficulties that may be home- or community-centered, and other children find the classroom situation one that places heavy emotional burdens upon them.

Sociometric Procedures

The sociogram, described in Chapter 10, although useful in any group situation, can be especially helpful to the elementary classroom teacher in helping her to establish in her room an emotional climate conducive to optimal learning. Cliques exist in every classroom as in every gathering of individuals. In every pupil group, there are inner groups composed of very popular children who are the leaders and of their cronies. These cliques provide fertile ground for emotional difficulties for young people: the child who is not included in an important clique suffers deeply from feelings of rejection and unworthiness. He will try hard to gain acceptance; he will use every resource at his command to win a place close to one of the leaders. Success or failure in this effort influences his estimate of himself with regard to the kind of response he is able to win from others, and this self-estimate may affect his personal relationships for a good part of his life.

Cliques bring still other problems into school life. Feuds between leaders of "in-groups" may create a contentious atmosphere in the classroom. Anything said by one of Jimmy's bunch is derided by Al's followers; and any activity suggested by Al's henchmen receives sullen lack of cooperation from Jimmy's cronies. This hostility erupts into covert threats, shoving in the halls, and occasional fisticuffs on the playground. The clique, moreover, operates like a gang: it sets up a code of conduct and punishes violations, thus adding to the undercurrents of tension at work in the pupil group. The result is that not only the clique-rejected pupils but even the chosen ones become problems to the teacher, because they accept uncritically whatever patterns of behavior are in vogue with the clique; thus even sensible pupils will occasionally startle the teacher by actions alien to their usual, level-headed selves. The gentlemanly pupil will suddenly participate in mischief, and the conscientious scholar will suddenly produce sloppy work—because the clique considers it sissified to behave like a teacher's pet. And if the clique decides to smoke furtive cigarettes or rifle lunch boxes or terrorize smaller children into paying tribute of candy or cash, the resulting problems may pass beyond juvenile whim into near-delinquency.

What can the classroom teacher do to maintain a wholesome learning climate in her room? At one level the problem is a matter of discipline;

at a deeper level it is a matter of solving some of the disturbing problems of interpersonal relations in her group. To accomplish this, a sociogram may be of great help.[7]

A sociometric analysis of the class will help to expose the undercurrents, the sensitive spots, and the areas of friction within the group. Not only will the sociogram reveal who are the leaders, the followers, and the rejected individuals among the children, but it will indicate general attitudes at work among them, such as race prejudice or hostility between the boys and the girls. Aware that such tensions exist, the teacher can make efforts to gradually eradicate them. Knowing who are the leaders among a group of young people is vital, because success in molding behavior and correcting unsocial tendencies is surer and quicker if the natural leaders in a society—large or small—are induced to set good examples. It has been found that in some cases a disorderly class will gain some serenity if the teacher discovers who the popular pupils and their closest cronies are and seats them next to each other. Even as widespread a problem as a vague fretfulness throughout the whole school has been revealed by sociograms to be due to hostility between the boys and the girls. This situation may occur in a school in which the two sexes play in separate yards and move in separate routines. An effective way to smooth out this antipathy is to permit the boys and girls to mingle and to arrange for their leaders to work together.

Often a rejected child can be helped to win a place in a clique by assigning him to work with its leader on a committee. Once the leader befriends him, the clique will accept him. (See Chapter 10.) This device may help to gain acceptance for a pupil who is ignored or tormented because he is different from the other pupils in ethnic background or religion.

Other Techniques

There are still other ways to ease group tensions. Sometimes widespread discipline problems exist because of too stringent regulations. For example, when a school in New Jersey had a problem of tardiness, the administrator decided upon the following solution: The first fifteen minutes of each morning were set aside as a "conversation time," during which pupils could discuss whatever they wished. Anybody arriving during this fifteen-minute period had missed no schoolwork and was not counted tardy. The device

[7] See The Intergroup Education Project of the American Council on Education (Hilda Taba, director), *A Sociometric Work Guide;* Jane Warters, *Techniques of Counseling,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954, Chapter 12.

worked; in fact, the conversation period became so popular that children hated to miss any part of it and tardiness decreased markedly. Similarly, problems of whispering and note-writing and restlessness are minor in a classroom in which pupils are free to move around and talk to one another. They retain such privileges, of course, by not abusing them.

In one very informal California school, pupils were permitted to wander from classroom to classroom and visit when they felt like it; in fact, if a moody young person did not feel like studying, no one breathed a hot breath of urgency down his neck. Newcomers to the school sometimes took a month before settling down to work; but eventually they did buckle down to the job, for they were held responsible for mastering any assignment given them before they were allowed to go on to the next. Graduates of this school did very well in high school. Another control measure that looks like fun to the pupils consists in giving them a chance to let off steam. In some schools, when youthful spirits get high, books are closed, tables are pushed over against the walls, and everybody takes part in folk dancing. Hopping and whirling through an intricate dance is a safety valve especially useful on a Friday afternoon in May when sunshine and balmy air invite young people out-of-doors with an almost irresistible appeal.

Articulation

Articulation is the term applied to the arrangement of the school curriculum and the movement of students through its various stages. Defined in greater detail, articulation concerns the sequence of definitely planned courses and activities extending from kindergarten through senior high school or college and the arrangement for transfer of students in a smooth flow through this purposefully planned schedule of instruction.[8]

Junior-high-school Articulation

Articulation programs usually involve informing students and their parents of the activities, requirements, and curriculum structuring of the next school level. Thus, at the junior-high-school level, the chief function of the articulation program is to coordinate both curriculum and student-personnel practices with those of the elementary school. This involves an exchange of a great deal of information between the two schools.

[8] Warters, *op. cit.*, Chapter 9.

Since planning for student adjustment is the primary concern of the counselor, he is frequently charged with facilitating this coordination. He visits the elementary school to become acquainted with its pupils and to acquaint them with the junior high school. This is both an information-giving and an information-getting activity. It is important not only that elementary-school pupils and their parents be informed of the junior-high-school program, but also that the junior high school begin at this stage to become acquainted with the new students who will be entering its doors the next term.

Such a program involves both group and individual contacts which must be systematically worked out; a single visit of the junior-high-school representative is inadequate for this purpose. Some junior high schools release a counselor for the second semester to work full time with the feeder elementary schools. He holds group meetings with both pupils and parents of all sixth grades in the district involved. He also arranges individual interviews with each pupil and his parents, makes a home visit whenever necessary or feasible, and goes over the elementary-school records in an effort to effect the smooth transfer of this whole group of pupils to the junior high school.

Senior-high-school Articulation

Articulation programs which provide for individual adjustment become even more important at the senior-high-school level. The senior-high-school program, based upon an elective system, places great responsibility on the student and his parents to make choices which are in harmony with the goals and abilities of the individual student. Such planning requires not only considerable information but also interpretation of individual data with almost every young person and his family. This work is a major phase of the educational guidance program of the school, for such articulation cannot be achieved by merely distributing a curriculum leaflet or handbook to students and their parents.

In systems in which articulation between schools of different levels is seriously undertaken, systematic programs should be planned for personnel work between the schools.[9] A school counselor is usually assigned to the junior high school for an extended period to help students grasp the senior-high-school program and objectives and the relationship of early program planning to vocational goals, to college attendance, and to other life-career goals. At this time also the junior high school begins to gather systematic

[9] *Ibid.*, Chapter 12.

pupil data to be applied in the senior high school. Careful planning is necessary. A program which seems to have much merit is that of designating a senior-high-school counselor to work with an incoming group of junior-high-school students, both during the semester preceding their entrance into the senior high school and throughout their careers in the latter school.

Parents often fail to understand the complexities of specialization and of departmental organization of school systems, which in many cases are involved and intricate. It is usually wise, therefore, to develop a careful program of explanation for the incoming students and their parents.

It is of key importance, too, during this period when the counselor is working with a group of graduating junior-high-school students, to begin the careful appraisal of interests, abilities, and family-background factors that will influence the extent and nature of the individual student's educational program. It is at this time that the counseling relationship as we have described it begins. If this effort at successful induction of new students is effective, much time is saved for later work with the more serious problems of individual students.

Orientation Programs

Almost all secondary schools and colleges conduct some form of orientation program. Such programs vary from a single lecture to a full course and are perhaps the most common form of group guidance. The purpose of an orientation program, of course, is to help students, particularly new students, to get their bearings in the school. The program presents information about the institution, its physical facilities, personnel, and administrative arrangements; it includes an introduction to the teachers and to the leaders of various activities, and it helps students to become acquainted with one another.

The orientation program is an all-school instructional undertaking, but several phases of the program are the special responsibilities of the counselor.[10] It is his task to discover which problems that are troubling students can be treated through the group activities scheduled in the orientation program. It is also his task to make sure that students in the orientation program learn that the counseling service exists and is intended to help them. If students learn this fact, if they acquire an attitude of willingness to avail themselves of counseling, then the orientation program has been successful in developing in them a readiness for counseling.

[10] Clifford P. Froehlich, *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, Chapter 6.

This purpose of the orientation program is often neglected. Obviously, if students are not informed of the presence, the status, the activities, and the functions of the counselor in the school, few student-initiated contacts with the counselor will be established. Then counseling becomes an activity that is initiated by the counselor; and, unfortunately, when a student is sent for and informed of his problem, the counseling relationship is in many cases off to a poor start.

Readiness for counseling is an important factor in successfully orienting a student in school. A number of elements are involved:

The student's recognition of whatever problems he may have in his acceptance of, and adaptation to, the school situation.

The student's recognition of his own learning problems. He must be aware of such learning problems as deficiency in reading or in arithmetic, or in the social skills necessary to participate fully in school life—being painfully shy or unable to dance, for example.

The student's recognition of personal differences from other students in development, in maturation, in interests. Adolescents have growth spurts at different stages in their development; of two high-school freshmen, for example, one may be 5 feet, 2 inches tall and the other 6 feet, 1 inch; one may be poised and talkative with girls, and the other tongue-tied and ill at ease; one may be interested in sports and cars and clothes, and the other in stamps and science fiction and bird-watching. Each must realize that he is not inferior or superior to the other—that the other, too, is worthy of respect.

The student's full realization of the fact that his relationship to the counselor is permissive. The student must be helped to realize that among school personnel, with their various responsibilities of control and regulation of behavior, the counselor more than any other staff member represents the point of view of the student and that his role is not that of disciplinarian.

The student's recognition of the role of counseling within the total school situation: that it is there to serve him. The student is ready for counseling when he knows clearly that whenever he feels out of place at school, whenever he feels inadequate to cope with a learning problem or a social problem, the counselor is available to help him to a solution and is warmly accepting and supportive.

In some circumstances, the counselor may, as part of his assignment, be an orientation teacher. He may make use of this responsibility as an opportunity for developing group counseling relationships which have not only informational but also therapeutic values and which enable him to be more effective in his individual contacts with students.

School Procedure in Group Guidance

The Home-room Program

In many schools the home room serves the purpose which we have described as that of the orientation program. The home room is an operating base to which students are assigned at the beginning of school. There they have desks in which to leave their books; there the home-room teacher keeps a record of their attendance and tardiness, reads notices to them, records their grades, and makes out their report cards. Home rooms were originally planned to provide a situation in which each student would be the direct responsibility of a teacher who would know him as an individual, observe his progress, be aware of his problems, and guide him through part of his high-school career. In addition, the home-room program was intended to expedite administrative routine.

In general, the program has serious defects. Although it is true that the home-room teacher in situations in which students remain in her group for their entire high-school careers has a better opportunity than other teachers to discover their characteristics and can therefore be of help to other teachers in meeting students' needs, in too many situations the home-room teacher does not accomplish these things, principally because she does not have enough time with the students. When students have only ten minutes in the home room on arrival in the morning and five minutes before leaving at the end of the school day, the teacher can do no more than check on attendance. The home-room system works most effectively when the students spend a period a day with the teacher in activity that is definitely planned for guidance purposes—provided the teacher is qualified for the special responsibilities involved. Such a program, of course, closely approaches an orientation course.

Senior Problems Course

Courses in senior problems are popular in many schools. The content of such courses may include study of many social issues and controversies which are of interest to the group. The course is not standardized and is usually developed from a survey of student interests. Common topics, of course, are post-high-school planning and social and personal problems: What do you do when your father wants you to study law but you want to paint or play professional ball? Should you let a boy kiss you on your

first date with him? Is there more satisfaction in service to others than in money-making?

Special Programs

In addition to the group activities which are regularly scheduled parts of the school curriculum, other special activities can be arranged on a group basis. They include such special programs as careers day, college day, special assemblies, planned community visits, and group meetings dealing with planning and adjustment topics. Such events may be quite effective when they are a part of the group-guidance program and are supplemented with appropriate preparatory and follow-up activities.

A careers day can be very rewarding. It can be used as the introduction to a unit on occupational information and planning or as a climaxing activity in connection with such a unit. A conference of this type brings the community into the school and gives students an opportunity to ask questions directly of occupational leaders. (This activity is described in more detail in Chapter 11.) Its chief defects are that it teaches by the "telling" method and that reports on trades and professions by people earning their livings in them are apt to be biased.

A college-day conference, similarly, can be used to bring educational leaders into the school. These leaders are able to bring information to students and to answer their questions on educational planning.[11]

Field trips can be very helpful. A unit of work experiences may be tied in with a series of planned visits to places of employment. Readiness sharpens the vision: students who see men at work in shops, factories, garages, office buildings, and newspaper plants and who realize that one of these jobs may soon be theirs observe closely and perceptively and retain what they see. Most people—adults as well as young people—are unaware of how wide a variety of work is necessary to society and how much experience and knowledge is required in even the most commonplace employment. Watching men and women at their daily routine of work can supply this awareness. Business people and plant managers are usually glad to permit classes to tour their premises. Reading about vocations is valuable for students, but actually seeing skilled workers on the job—assembling electronics devices, looming textiles, operating telephone equipment, overhauling airplane engines, making blueprints, rehearsing radio plays, removing appendices and addressing juries—is an infinitely more vivid and memorable experience.

[11] Max F. Baer and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information*, Science Research Associates, 1951, Chapter 14.

One of the major objectives of the guidance program is to develop students' skills in human relations. Participation in clubs and extracurricular activities gives students the opportunity to work together in a productive give-and-take relationship. Activities such as athletic teams, drama clubs, publication staffs, language clubs, choral societies, bands and orchestras, and student-government committees are valuable not only for practice in functioning as dynamic human beings but also in giving zest to the discipline of learning. Counselors should be alert to opportunities for making constructive use of such media in assisting especially those students who need experience in cooperating with others and who, unless helped to make a start, would not otherwise participate. In many schools a relatively few students monopolize opportunities for leadership and even for membership in organizations. Careful planning is often necessary to ensure experience in working with others to those students who most need it and who would gain most from it.

The major part of the counselor's responsibility is his face-to-face relationships with individual students. Group activities are, in a sense, extra functions, but they are nevertheless important, for they provide adjustive experiences for students. Actually, the counselor does not have enough time to deal with all the students on an individual basis. For this reason the extra functions are vital: they provide many students with the stimulation, the information, and the experiences they need to work out their problems of adjustment.

Whole-school Projects

Occasionally a school will approach guidance as a whole-school project involving every faculty member. The staff of a large high school in California—a school with a student population of more than three thousand—held regular meetings to analyze the major problems of their students. The staff estimated that the behavior of about 10 percent of the students was not up to desired standards. Quite a large percentage of students were "isolates" who did not enter into the social life of the school community; in fact, only a third of the student body attended dances and rallies. Also, the school had a large population of students of Mexican background, most of whom came from poor families, many of whom had a language handicap, and nearly all of whom suffered from feeling that they belonged to a minority group. About two percent of the students were retarded learners.

These are all difficult problems, and the faculty knew that finding

solutions would not be easy. Outside consultants with wide experience in these areas of difficulty were engaged, and under their guidance the faculty made long-range plans. Four main lines of endeavor were established: a Basic Course Project to work with mentally retarded pupils; a Student Body Project to study ways of involving more of the student population—especially the isolate fringe—in school activities; a Child Development Group to work on problems of discipline; and a group to investigate the needs and anxieties of the students of Mexican-American background.

This last project, handled realistically and honestly, is of especial interest. The teacher assigned to do the investigating had a warm, winning personality and was herself of Mexican-American background. She arranged a series of interviews with students of a variety of backgrounds, and in the verbatim records of these interviews, the students of Mexican parentage demonstrated a clarity of insight into their social situation which aroused deep respect for their acuteness and sympathy for their predicament. Repeatedly in their responses they revealed an agonizing self-consciousness: they had a horror of standing before a class to recite. Part of this feeling was due to the fear that the Spanish they spoke at home would betray them into slips of pronunciation and verbal awkwardness that would earn them ridicule. Their dress was of interest. Many of the girls wore short skirts and socks, though it was not the fashion to dress in this way; the boys wore heavy leather jackets, even in warm weather, soft sport shirts, tight jeans, and heavy-soled shoes—a combination that was very nearly a uniform. Why? Did this type of dress represent unity and solidarity? Did it represent an expression of defiance? For members of their own group who conformed more closely to school practice, they showed resentment: "The Mexicans who don't want to talk Spanish think they're too good for the rest of us. They think they're *gavachos*. These stuck-up kids are the ones who join clubs and things like that."

A seventeen-year-old girl of Mexican background said:

> There's a lot of prejudice in this school, but it's on both sides. Just the same, the Mexican kids don't feel as if they're wanted. In elementary school, we had all kinds of kids, Japanese, too, but we all felt comfortable together. The American kids just want you for what they can get out of you. For instance, once in a gym class the captains chose sides for baseball. They chose me last. Afterward, the captain of the other side said, "We should have chosen that Mexican girl. She's good."

Another Mexican-American girl said:

Clothes are important. So is money. [And another girl said:] I have been hurt many times. When we were in elementary school, I used to run around with an American girl. After we came to high school, this girl hardly ever talks to me. If we meet in the halls and she is with other kids she says hello in a very embarrassed way. My friend Dolores was asked by the most popular boy in school, an American, to go have a malt where all the American kids go. When they entered the shop, all the American girls stared at them and it was so quiet my friend was very embarrassed. She told the boy she didn't ever want to go out with him because she didn't want to be talked about.

A seventeen-year-old boy who plans to go to medical school said:

This school is very clique-y. The same people are in everything. If you haven't lived here a long time it's hard to get into anything. People here have standing according to what they are studying. The highest socially are the college prep kids. They run the school and they won't have much to do with the Future Farmers or the Radio Men. Commercial kids go in between. I'm in the middle group. I'm a college prep kid but I go with a commercial girl. As a rule my group won't have much to do with those of a lower group, especially if they don't wear appropriate clothes. Lowest are the kids who take trades like auto mechanics. The upper kids wouldn't soil their hands on the agriculturals.

A fourteen-year-old girl, with a very attractive personality, mature for her age, and not of Mexican parentage, said:

I can talk Spanish pretty well and I just like Mexicans and am accepted by them. There's a lot of prejudice in this school. Last year, I had a lot of trouble with the American kids. One of the boys, a nasty smarty, even made me cry because he said I shouldn't mix with Mexicans. The American kids still make it miserable for me, but not as much as last year. They won't take me into their little groups. . . . Mexican kids seem to have a silly idea they're inferior, and really they're just as smart as anybody. They don't have confidence in themselves. They're afraid to go into activities because they think American kids will shove them down, and if they do get picked the other kids will ridicule them. When girls are choosing teams, unless a Mexican girl is captain, Mexican girls are always left to the last. Teams chosen, I think, are always on a social level. College prep kids stick to themselves. The commercials go together, and so do the Mexican girls.

Among the students interviewed was a Negro girl whose response shows a healthy and encouraging attitude:

The Mexican kids here are so clanny. They stay in groups by themselves and don't participate in anything. The more activities you are in, the more you have to talk about. To get along with people, you've got to be

friendly, and know how to talk. A smile goes a long way. Sort of give in. See the other person's point of view.

The conclusions of this investigation indicate that students of Mexican parentage feel a desperate need to achieve and to belong. They want to be respected, and they want chances to earn that respect; they want to feel that they are liked and accepted. And for "Mexican" in these responses one could no doubt substitute in other parts of the country "Negro," "Italian," "Jewish," "Portuguese," or "Japanese."

To meet this problem, the school faculty enlisted the aid of student leaders and, under the guidance of experienced consultants, embarked upon a program to bring these withdrawing students into more active participation in school life, since pleasant personal contact rapidly wears prejudice away. Before such contact is possible, of course, some barriers of bias must be removed; the student body in general must develop a wholesome acceptance of people who are "different." Students must be made aware that all ethnic groups have made great contributions to civilization in such areas as art and music, science, law, and democracy; that all men are basically alike, in spite of myths and stereotypes; that prejudice and discrimination form a two-edged weapon that hurts both the wielder and the victim; and that although prejudice and discrimination exist in America, they are alien to the principles on which our country was founded.[12]

Helpful material for guidance workers is to be found in the reports of the project on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools of the American Council on Education and of the Center for Intergroup Education at the University of Chicago. These two enterprises developed experimental programs in schools and communities, conducted studies of the cultural backgrounds of young people, evaluated approaches to education in the field of human relations, and analyzed the problems encountered. Out of this pioneering effort has come a series of publications called *Studies in Intergroup Education*.[13]

[12] This program has been under way only a short time, but already the number of students dropping out of the school has decreased.

[13] Hilda Taba *et al.*, *Diagnosing Human Relations Needs, with Focus on Human Relations; Elementary Curriculum in Intergroup Relations; Curriculum in Intergroup Relations: Secondary Schools;* and others. Published by the American Council on Education, Washington 6, D. C.

Another helpful series of publications is the Intergroup Education Pamphlets published by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 4th Ave., New York City.

Still another very useful tool is the *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*, by Margaret M. Heaton and Helen B. Lewis, American Council on Education, revised edition 1954. This book presents methods and reading materials designed to promote growth in human understanding and is based on the belief that the printed page can be used to teach attitudes as well as facts—and to teach in the process of entertaining.

More than good intentions is required to improve the relations between individuals and groups who differ in race, color, creed, and social status; not even knowledge and sympathy are enough, for the problems are too difficult. Verbal learning alone is insufficient to help children gain the insight necessary to deal effectively with problems that arise in their relationships to other people, especially with individuals from social groups that differ widely from their own. Real education in human relations does not occur until feelings and behavior are also affected. This requires a curriculum and teaching methods that provide equipment for dealing with the problems involved. The *Studies in Intergroup Relations* series presents theories and methods that have been successfully used in developing curriculums designed to improve human relations at both elementary and secondary levels.

Limitations to Group-guidance Activities

Group-guidance methods have many advantages, among them efficiency, economy, and the social values to students of interacting with one another and with other people. Group methods are especially useful for presenting information to students, for with one effort at arrangements and presentation, data can be supplied to an entire group; moreover, a group will raise many more questions and examine many more facets of a subject than a single person can. Each participant is likely to come away from the group situation with a richer grasp of the subject than he could gain from an individual interview.

Group-guidance activities do, however, have their limitations. Although they serve many of the objectives of the school guidance program, it is clear that they do not serve all these objectives. Group-guidance activities create the mental set to which we apply the term "readiness for counseling." If individual guidance is not available, however, once this mental set has been created, readiness for counseling may raise a number of problems in the life of the student and in the life of the school; indeed, it may even create more problems than it solves. Even if the group-guidance program in a school is carefully organized and skillfully operated, it will not serve the needs of those students who require individual counseling. Group guidance helps students with their common problems, and there are many of these; but individuals differ in the amount and kind of assistance they must have to work through their difficulties. Some students have unique problems that can be solved only with the help of individual counseling.

Summary

In some phases of his duty, the counselor can work with a group of thirty or more students instead of seeing each student individually; in this way he can save both time and effort. Group-guidance procedures result in maximal service at minimal cost.

Some major objectives of group guidance are: to assist students in the recognition of unique and common problems; to provide information useful in the solution of problems of adjustment; to furnish opportunity for group thinking and discussion of various common problems and purposes; to provide opportunity for experiences that promote self-appraisal and self-understanding; to establish readiness for individual counseling.

Teachers who are given responsibility for group guidance should, of course, be genuinely interested in the adjustment problems of young people and should have demonstrated their ability to achieve rapport with them. Such teachers should become familiar with students' typical problems, should know the basic principles of fostering mental health, should know how to use group tests and inventories and group records, and should understand the principles of group structuring and of group techniques such as panel discussion, discussion groups, sociodrama and role-playing.

Some common types of group-guidance efforts are: sociometric analysis of cliques and social relationships in the classroom; articulation programs to inform students and their parents of the requirements and curriculum of the school level to which the students will next advance; orientation programs to help new students become familiar with school routines and opportunities and to help them achieve a readiness for counseling; home-room programs, in which students are assigned to specific rooms as operating bases and remain under the observation of teachers who have the opportunity to become well acquainted with them; senior problems courses which deal with social and civic issues derived from study of student interests; such special programs as career days, college days, and field trips; and whole-school projects in which the entire staff is involved in an effort to diagnose and solve student problems.

Group-guidance activities have limitations: they will not serve the needs of those students who require individual counseling. Group methods must therefore be supplemented by individual help for those students whose problems are unique or so difficult that they will respond only to individual attention.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. What were the original purposes and methods of the home room in the secondary school? What accounts for its decline in popularity in the last fifteen years?

2. Compare the meanings of the terms "group guidance" and "group counseling." Consider both objectives and techniques.

3. Cite five major purposes of the ninth-grade orientation program. Consider methods by which these purposes can be achieved. Set up parallel columns for purposes and methods.

4. Do the same for a senior-problems or senior-orientation class.

5. Many educational writers have shifted from the use of the term *extracurricular* to the term *co-curricular* to designate a specific set of activities. What shift in educational philosophy is implicit in this change?

6. The following data come from a sampling survey of the secondary-school students of a western state.

Activities	Boys Percent	Activities	Girls Percent
1. Football	65	1. Clubs	92
2. Sports	52	2. Pep club	85
3. Basketball	46	3. Dancing	68
4. Baseball	46	4. Music	59
5. Clubs	50	5. Drama	53
6. Track	39	6. Sports	52
7. Drama	38	7. Assemblies	48
8. Music	37	8. Chorus	33

AND PROJECTS

Activities	Boys Percent		Activities	Girls Percent
9. Band	28		9. F.H.A.	31
10. Dances	28		10. Speech	28
11. Choir	22		11. School paper	26
12. Speech	15		12. Swimming	25
13. Tennis	12		13. Band	25
14. Wrestling	12		14. Opera	22
15. Assemblies	12		15. Yearbook	18
16. Debate	11		16. Tennis	17
17. Swimming	8		17. Debate	16
18. School newspaper	6		18. Choir	15
19. Yearbook	4		19. Mother and daughter	14
20. Opera	3		20. G.A.A.	13
21. Student government	3		21. Group parties	8
22. R.O.T.C.	4		22. Games	13
23. Boxing	2		23. Student government	5
24. Cheer leading	1		24. Skiing	5
			25. Field trips	2
			26. Fashion show	2
			27. Contests	2
			28. Vocational day	1
			29. Church	1

Would you consider these findings typical? What notable emphases and omissions do you observe?

Prepare a simple questionnaire for obtaining similar data for a school which you know well.

7. Discuss the relationship of the counselor to the student-activities program.

8. Some schools have developed "academic teams" which compete with each other in achievement contests; thus, a sixth-grade arithmetic team from one class might hold a problem-solving contest with a team from another class. Evaluate this device as a group guidance activity. List both positive and negative values.

9. The director of guidance at a junior college reports that he has observed that an all-school square-dance club provides a good device for drawing out and socializing the shy and withdrawing students in the school. What is the rationale behind this technique? What other devices do you think would be equally fruitful?

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Part Five

EVALUATION

· 16 ·

Evaluation of the Guidance Program

BASICALLY, evaluation is the process of determining worth, and an evaluation of a guidance program is simply an effort to determine its worth. In the total educational program, evaluation should be thought of as the systematic gathering and weighing of evidence which will reveal changes in the behavior of students as they progress through school. This process may, of course, be applied to an entire program or to any of its parts.[1]

Obviously, in evaluating a guidance program, a clear statement of the purposes or objectives of the program must be formulated; then a set of criteria can be developed against which to measure the accomplishments of the program. Evaluation then proceeds as follows: One objective of the counseling program is the improvement of pupil achievement. The criterion is student marks. If a comparison of the marks made by students over a period of two or more years shows that fewer students are failing courses this year than last and the number of superior marks is increasing, then stu-

[1] Grayson N. Kefauver and Harold C. Hand, *Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools*, The Macmillan Co., 1941.

dent achievement has improved. (It is assumed here, of course, that the grading is not done on a "curve.") In this case, evaluation is comparatively simple, for the data are fairly definite, objective, and quantitative. Another objective of the guidance program may be to help graduates and dropouts to find jobs; again, the effectiveness of the program in this respect is measured by calculating the number and percentage of job placements made. However, when the objective under consideration is to heighten students' feelings of satisfaction—to improve their emotional adjustment—the kinds of evidence and the nature of the criteria to be employed are quite different. Emotions cannot be identified or their quality and intensity gauged by an objective, numerical tool; attitudes cannot be measured by rulers or weighed on scales; instead, they have to be judged indirectly through their expression in behavior.

A major difficulty in the evaluation of guidance is the fact that most of its objectives are, as we have seen, broad and inclusive. Although some of the achievements of the guidance service can be measured objectively and hence evaluated separately, the total guidance program, integrated within the educational program and, moreover, specifically intended to facilitate the educational services, is much more difficult to evaluate.[2] Any treatment of evaluation must necessarily consider both general and specific functions.

The Process of Evaluation

At first glance, evaluation is a deceptively simple and clear-cut process. The steps in the process can be formulated as follows: (a) state the objectives; (b) establish criteria which definitely apply to the objectives; (c) collect evidence of results; and (d) weigh the evidence against the criteria. The result of this procedure is a measure of value, of the extent to which the objectives have been achieved. Evaluation is thus a simple process when the pertinent factors and variables can be isolated and controlled; difficulties arise, however, in evaluating those guidance efforts which involve the many subtle aspects of human behavior which cannot be lifted out of context and subjected to measuring techniques.

Approaches to Evaluating Guidance

The reasons why too little attention has been given to evaluation in the

[2] Arthur H. Brayfield, *Readings in Modern Methods of Counseling*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950, Part 6.

field of guidance are fairly clear: the causes of behavior are complex and difficult to identify, and it is often impossible to determine whether a change in behavior is due to counseling or to some outside factor. In attempting to help a client to better adjustment, the counselor works in two directions—he tries to change the client, and he tries to change the tensions and pressures of the client's environment which appear to be contributing to his maladjustment. But when a behavior change occurs, the counselor can rarely be certain whether he succeeded in changing the client or whether a change in circumstances deserves the credit. The counselor cannot set up scientific, experimental control of the many interwoven strands of ambivalent feelings, compulsions, and subconscious conflicts at work within a client. He cannot experiment with any one variable; all he can do is take whatever steps are appropriate toward solving the client's problem. The result is that it is very nearly impossible for him to evaluate the outcome of his effort in terms of any specific action. Evaluation is not entirely impossible, however; the effects of certain guidance tools and procedures can be studied in such a way as to yield some clear measure of their efficiency and validity.[8]

Evaluation studies in current guidance literature present several quite different approaches, two of which we shall consider here:

(1) Analysis of the content of client statements during the counseling interviews.

(2) Appraisal of such measurable outcomes of counseling as are revealed by follow-up studies of clients.

The first approach to evaluation deals with the content of the interview. Many counselors keep detailed records of their interviews and through the careful study of interview materials attempt to discover the extent to which the client's behavior has improved—or, perhaps more accurately, the extent to which he has developed the insight and self-understanding which provide the psychological basis for improved behavior. For example, a direct count on a typescript of interviews of the number of *negative* responses made by a client may indicate that negative responses decreased as the relationship progressed. A negative response is a statement such as the following: "It wasn't my fault. I couldn't help what I did." "The other boys pushed me into it." "The teacher has it in for me. Everything that happens I get blamed for." "My Dad blames me for everything that happens to the car. He picks on me about it all the time."

Another type of negative response is the confused, baffled, passive attitude implied in such questions as "What should I do?" and "What do I do

[8] Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 12.

then?" In asking such questions, the client is really saying that he does not want to be responsible for making important decisions. He is demonstrating his dependence; he is asking to be told what to do. Similarly, a count of positive responses during the same period can provide a valuable indication of the client's progress.

Progress in counseling is sometimes indicated by a shift from the question "What should I do?" to "What can I do?" This usually means that the client is beginning to respond to the counseling effort; he is seeking information and clarification of alternatives. Another type of positive response is expressed in the client's accepting responsibility: keeping appointments, acting on suggestions for seeking external data, beginning the intellectual process of discovering and analyzing both external conditions and his own feelings.

Positive behavior may be revealed also in many small but overt indications that the client is trying to understand himself and his situation and is beginning to assume responsibility for himself. These signals are evidence of growth: for example, the boy who has been referred to the counselor because of continual tardiness and who begins to ask himself: "Why am I late to class so often? Am I delayed at home or somewhere else? Or is there something about the class that I just want to avoid?" is giving evidence of increasingly positive behavior.

When such analysis of the content of a client's statements reveals that he is developing insight and accepting responsibility, the counselor seeks for evidence that will indicate the extent or degree of his acceptance of responsibility. How mature a role has he begun to play in his relations with his family, friends, and school contacts?[4]

The second approach to evaluation mentioned above is the appraisal of such measurable outcomes of counseling as are revealed by follow-up studies of clients conducted after the series of interviews are completed. The counselor attempts to learn whether the students who have undergone counseling show changes in such behavior as attendance, remaining in the same curriculum, achieving better grades or better standing in the class, participating in the school program as a whole, getting and holding jobs, and obtaining better reports from employers. Negative factors, too, are assessed—such as referrals for disciplinary action, absences, or other symptoms of negative behavior.

[4] It should be borne in mind, of course, that improvement in the way a client talks about his problem does not ensure that he will actually change in his behavior. See Harold B. Pepinsky and Pauline N. Pepinsky, *Counseling Theory and Practice*, Ronald Press, 1954, Chapter 11.

The Problem of Criteria

Although it is difficult to establish standards by which to judge counseling effort, yet some criteria for success in guidance are necessary if counselors are to increase continually the sensitivity and effectiveness of their methods of work. A counselor's feeling that he is obtaining good results is obviously not enough; to achieve some degree of objective and scientific validity, it is necessary to establish some bench marks of student adjustment by which to measure the success or failure of the counseling effort. The essential purpose of the guidance worker is, of course, the improvement of client adjustment. The crux of the whole problem is: What is the nature of adjustment? Who is well adjusted?

In the absence of standards for measuring fundamental changes in client behavior, research workers have sought to appraise guidance services in terms of three general types of criteria which, although not clearly differentiated, may be roughly characterized as: (1) normative surveys of provisions and practices, (2) follow-up studies of objective change in student behavior, and (3) studies of opinions expressed both by participants and by observers.

NORMATIVE SURVEYS. The normative survey provides the answer to one basic question: *How do the provisions and practices of our school or school system compare with those of others?* The use of these surveys is common in schools today. In order to increase the comparability of the data, check lists of major school activities have been developed and are now available. The U.S. Office of Education has distributed a bulletin entitled *Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools.*[5] This pamphlet is essentially an organized arrangement of questions and opinion scales to be used in collecting information; hence it provides criteria only in the sense that the activities to which the scales and questions apply are deemed to be desirable. The data collected from wide application of such a check list could be used to establish norms for the points covered, and in this respect the instrument does have value as a guide to comprehensive examination of guidance activities.

A group called the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards has developed a check list for appraising the entire program of the secondary school.[6] One of its sections deals with guidance services and provides

[5] Arthur C. Benson, *Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools,* Form B, U.S. Office of Education, Division of Occupational Information and Guidance Services, Mis. Pub. 3317, 1949.
[6] Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria,* 1950 Edition.

guides for obtaining data which describe school organization and practices. The items cover both the presence of a specific activity and a judgment of its quality in the opinion of the observer. This instrument can be used either for self-appraisal by the school staff or for appraisal by an outside observer.

Another instrument of this type is *Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*. It is described by the following paragraph from its preface:[7]

> The purpose of this publication is to provide secondary-school administrators, supervisors, counselors, and teachers with a guide for making an informal appraisal of programs of guidance services provided by junior high schools, senior or four-year high schools, and junior colleges. The bulletin is not intended as the basis of a formal evaluation that will designate a guidance program as "excellent," "good," or "poor," or as a basis for rating the guidance program of one school against that of another. Rather it is intended as a tool which can be used in attempting to arrive at an answer to the question, "What do we need to do next in order to improve the guidance services that we provide for our students?"

The appraisal guides or check lists provided in this bulletin cover ten categories of guidance activities:

Organization
The orientation program
Group activities
Appraising individual differences
Educational and occupational information
Counseling
Placement
Follow-up services
Guidance and curriculum development
Community relationships

Each section includes a brief general discussion of the nature and function of the service under consideration and a list of questions and statements. A three-point scale—*strong, fair, weak*—is the basis of response to each item. Experience in using this instrument indicates that it has a definite value as a guide to self-improvement and that it is best used in committee work in which the purpose is to agree upon a judgment of each activity.

The survey method has been used extensively in educational research. School surveys generally involve a comprehensive gathering and appraisal of data according to a check list. A school survey is usually much broader

[7] California State Department of Education, *Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*, Bureau of Guidance, 1950.

in scope than a survey intended only as a method of evaluating guidance; the latter survey, in fact, may be only one element of a school survey.

When only the guidance program is to be evaluated, a standard check list of provisions and practices may be used; in California, for example, several counties that have carried on systematic studies of the guidance services in their high schools have used the *California Check List*. In each school a committee made up of administrators, guidance workers, and teachers met as a group and worked through the items on the list. Although the object was to reach a common judgment on each item, disagreements were nevertheless recorded; the data for all the school studies were collated and analyzed by a specialist from the county office. It was found that publishing a bulletin reporting all the findings and making possible comparisons between schools provided effective motivation for improvement.

FOLLOW-UP STUDIES. The follow-up study has been extensively used in evaluating guidance services, and the literature in the field reports many findings and suggestions for methodology.[8]

The idea is generally accepted that a school or counseling service should keep a running account of what happens to its clients and that follow-up of students should be part of any comprehensive evaluation of a program. However, the following problems constitute serious objections to the use of follow-up data as the only basis for evaluating a guidance program: (1) difficulties of sampling, (2) erroneous assumptions regarding causality, and (3) difficulties in obtaining value criteria.

The first problem can be expressed in a question: How adequate is the sampling? It is difficult, in using questionnaires and interviews for making follow-up studies, to obtain adequate returns, because many former clients fail to answer questionnaires and because it is impossible to ensure that responses are always objectively honest. Furthermore, it is seldom possible to get in touch with all the clients. Inevitably, there is cause for serious doubt as to how truly representative the returns are. It is possible, of course, to make certain statistical tests of the representativeness of quantifiable elements of the data, but questions regarding qualitative coloring of the data may still remain. Bias may have affected the responses. The assertion is frequently made that those clients who have done well respond to the questionnaires, but others do not. Yet, in some situations, quite the reverse may be true. Unless steps can be taken to obtain full returns, the problem of bias is difficult to solve.

The second problem regarding the use of follow-up data for evaluation can perhaps be expressed in the question: Does counseling really deserve

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[8] For an account of the follow-up study, see Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951, Chapter 27.

the credit? The difficulty lies in relating reported data to causes. When a student's study habits have improved so that he is earning better marks, when a client has found a better job, are these changes due to counseling or to some other cause? The student himself may be unaware of influences which have a profound emotional effect on him. It is true that in most educational situations every foreseeable effort is made to meet student needs, not only by the counselor but also by teachers, administrators, parents, and others involved in the program. Even so, many of the student's important activities and relationships take place outside school, and improvement in his adjustment may be caused by circumstances not directly connected with his learning routine. Thus, the boy who has been lonely but finally becomes friends with a popular student and is accepted by the latter's clique may improve markedly in his studies; similar improvement may occur when a youngster's estranged parents become reconciled.

The point to be made here is that it is quite impossible, in research involving human relationships, to isolate and control variables and to establish any definite relationship between cause and effect. The effect of depression or of buoyancy of spirits on achievement seems obvious, but nevertheless it cannot be measured and often goes unnoticed. Even in carefully designed research studies in which matched groups are used and certain variables are controlled, there remain many factors that are beyond the management of the experimenter. Even so, analysis of apparent relationships has great value; but findings must be accepted with great caution.

If a study shows that a group of students who have had the benefit of a specific guidance service show more positive symptoms of adjustment and fewer negative characteristics than a group of students who have not had this service, the results are evidence of the usefulness of the program. Thus, the findings of Rothney and Roens that certain students who had had counseling experience showed significant gains in the realistic quality of their educational and vocational planning, improved in relative achievement, and demonstrated less negative behavior have definite value in assessing the guidance services in that specific setting.[9] Generally speaking, however, in research involving human beings—especially in a society characterized by a measure of freedom of choice for the individual—care must be exercised in relating observed behavior to any specific condition or experience.

The analysis of follow-up data also involves a number of problems concerning value. It is generally desirable that each student make good grades and that his achievement represent the best work of which he is capable; it follows, therefore, that the reduction of failures and a general rise in the

[9] John D. M. Rothney and B. A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student*, Dryden Press, 1949.

student grade level may serve as a criterion for evaluating counseling effort through data obtained from follow-up.

As a criterion of individual adjustment, however, improvement of grades raises a number of problems. Every counselor has clients who are over-concerned with academic achievement and who worry too much about getting high marks; for these students, "improved achievement" may actually be a negative symptom, because their higher grades may cost them too high a price in anxiety. The criterion of "remaining in school" is subject to the same criticism. It is quite possible that, for many students, leaving school may be a definite move toward improved adjustment. For students who find academic work boring, difficult, and frustrating, and who experience only failure, chagrin, and self-blame in school, quitting school and finding a job which gives them satisfaction and confidence may be a wise and happy step. On grounds such as these, each datum in the follow-up study must be questioned, for in every case a circumstantial judgment of value must be made.

To sum up: Every counselor and teacher is interested in what happens to his clients. The information which he may obtain from follow-up procedures provides a basis for judging the effectiveness of his work; indeed, without such data as a guide, he has no directives for improvement. Caution must be used, however, in interpreting such data because of the possibility of mistakes resulting from inadequate sampling, misunderstanding of causation, and overgeneralizing in evaluating behavior.

SURVEYS OF OPINION. A third approach to evaluating school guidance services involves amassing the opinions of the various people concerned—clients, parents, teachers, and "guidance experts." In a democratic society, public opinion is a powerful force: if pupils do not have a good opinion of the counseling service, and if they see no value in it, they will not use it; if teachers do not feel that the service is meeting the needs it was designed to meet, they will neither refer students to counselors nor accept suggestions from counselors; if parents have no faith in the program, they will not support it. Boards of education are probably more influenced by community opinion about a school program than by the findings of a carefully designed experimental study. All these considerations make opinion studies important in evaluation.

Yet there are difficulties involved in making opinion surveys, too. Expressions of opinion are often difficult to evaluate. There is always the danger of attaching the same value to the opinion of the uninformed person as to that of the well informed; often the individual passing judgment on an activity is not aware of its purpose, knows little of its actual operation, and judges its effectiveness on the basis of a single instance. Some opinions

are merely impulsive expressions of strong bias or feeling. Others are strongly colored by recent experience; thus, a student's reaction to counseling immediately after a pleasant, ego-satisfying experience is hearty with enthusiastic approval. Similarly, a parent's estimate of a school activity may be based solely on the observation of its effects on his own child, regardless of the fact that his child may be a deviate, unique in his group.[10]

Opinion studies present many technical problems as well: semantic difficulties may cause stimulus questions or statements to have quite different meanings to different people, and yet the summary of responses is based on the assumption of common interpretations. For example, the question "Do you think that your child is better adjusted now?" will bring answers that range from the fully insightful to the completely unperceiving. The parent who answers, "Yes, he is studying much more diligently now" may be wholly ignorant of the fact that though the child no longer expresses his anxieties in ways objectionable to the parent, he has now become compulsive about studying, because of increased parental pressure, and is neglecting other necessary activities, such as athletics, parties, and hobbies. In spite of these difficulties, opinion surveys have value and should be used; but they must be assessed with care.

The growth of guidance services requires the understanding and cooperation of many people. Such understanding does not develop overnight; it is the outgrowth of an accumulation of insights. This time factor must be taken into account in the evaluation of a guidance program.

Since each of the three basic approaches to evaluating guidance services has serious shortcomings, it is clear that worth-while evaluation is complex and that no one method is adequate. Actually, evaluation is a continuous process: every teacher and every counselor makes judgments on the success or failure of his work and changes his methods on the basis of these conclusions.

The professional literature of the past decade reports many studies of evaluation of guidance services and explores various methods, but more study is needed. Wrenn and Dugan suggest that the range of such studies and the methods for undertaking them might be as follows:

> They may include analyses of scholastic records, distribution of test scores, attendance at different functions, or the extent to which a guidance facility is used. They may involve using a student check list to identify problems, interviewing students to determine their knowledge of present guidance services and their evaluation of these services, or conducting "exit interviews" for all who leave schools in order to ascertain student reaction to

[10] Glenn E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program*, The Macmillan Co., 1951, Chapter 11.

school strengths and weaknesses. Two student groups may be matched in background and ability and the results observed when one group but not the other is exposed to a guidance procedure. Or a group of students may be measured or observed *before* and *after* a guidance change is made (and after ruling out or controlling other factors that might have caused any change.) Interviews or questionnaires may be used to determine various reactions of students, of parents, or of teachers. In some of these, the method used *assumes* a desired criterion: i.e., students' reactions are considered valuable or the method of questionnaires or check lists filled out by students would not be employed.[11]

Evaluation of Guidance Services
in a Typical High School

The following report is a practical illustration of the use of a variety of methods and criteria to evaluate the guidance program in operation in a typical high school of approximately 1000 students. This statement consists of excerpts from the report made to the administrative body of the school. It seems likely that the report is too negative to do justice to the program it evaluates. The guidance program in this school is perhaps richer than that of the average American secondary school, yet the report contains evidence of many imperfections: genuine leadership for guidance is lacking, and the members of the present staff of counselors are only partially qualified for their work. These discoveries will be extremely useful if they lead to self-study and growth rather than to defensiveness. Only two parts of the study are reprinted here. The first is a comparison of the program at the school (designated as Suburban High School) with the program recommended by a state-wide committee. The second is a summary of attitudes expressed by a one-quarter sample of the students.

I

COMPARISON OF THE SUBURBAN HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM WITH THE
RECOMMENDED PROGRAM FOR CALIFORNIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The Guidance Program in the secondary school consists of a number of rather specific services. In order to facilitate the understanding and evaluation of these services, the California State Department of Education prepared in 1952 a document entitled, "A Check List for Appraising the Sec-

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[11] C. Gilbert Wrenn and Willis E. Dugan, *Guidance Procedures in High School*, University of Minnesota Press, 1950, pp. 60-61.

ondary School Guidance Program." This check list consists of a systematic grouping of questions which permit the analysis of a total program. One aspect of the study of the Suburban High School program consisted in the use of this check list. The check list was presented to the counselors and administrators for both individual and group reporting. It is not feasible in a brief report to include the group responses to each of the 110 items appraised. Rather the data from this report will be presented in summary form. The check list is organized to provide an evaluation of nine aspects of the program. These nine aspects are as follows:

(1) the organization and administration of guidance services,
(2) the orientation program,
(3) the provision for the study of individual differences,
(4) the informational program,
(5) the counseling service,
(6) the placement service,
(7) provision made for follow-up of graduates and drop-outs,
(8) guidance and curriculum relationships,
(9) guidance and community relationships.

(1) *Organization and administration of the program.*

Judgments range from *fair* to *weak*.

The consultant's judgment on this aspect is that while the five counselors form a strong team among themselves, guidance services are not strongly related to the plan for developing school policy, for curriculum adaptation, and for the development and operation of the student-activities program.

(2) *The Orientation Program.*

General judgment is that this is a *strong* program.

Well-developed orientation programs in the form of regularly scheduled school courses operate in both the ninth- and twelfth-grade levels. The content of these courses will be described later. It appears that the Suburban High School has developed a program of orientation which would be judged outstanding among California secondary schools.

(3) *Provision for the Study of Individual Differences.*

This program has *both strong and weak points.*

The strength of the program lies in the fact that it is systematically organized, that good student records are maintained, that much information is gathered about each individual student, that intelligent use of psychological testing materials is made. It is apparent that the counselor has at hand, for the consideration of the individual student's educational and vocational planning, a well-organized and comprehensive array of personal data.

The weakness of the program appears to be that the information gathered is not broadly disseminated to the teachers who meet the student daily. All of this material bearing on individual characteristics and needs has little effect upon the basic curriculum of the school. Good student records are infrequently consulted by teachers. No systematic provision is made for getting this information to the teachers. No systematic provision for the in-service education of teachers in understanding individual differences and in adapting classroom procedures to them is undertaken.

(4) The Informational Program.

Basic judgment is that this is a *strong* program.

The Suburban High School maintains an unusually good file of information about colleges, scholarships, and other possible high-school educational opportunities. It has a good supply of basic occupational information with the exception that data regarding the outlook for occupational opportunities are not systematically collected and made available to students. The program for disseminating educational and occupational information operates primarily in the ninth- and twelfth-grade orientation classes. The experience of other schools indicates that this is sound procedure. These two school years are the periods in the life of a student when basic educational and vocational decisions are made.

One weakness of this informational program appears to be that it is operated primarily by the counselors and orientation teachers. No systematic provision is made for involving the interest of teachers in all subject-matter fields in helping students to explore occupational opportunities in all areas.

(5) The Counseling Service.

Basic judgment: *fair* to *strong*.

The provision made for counseling at the Suburban High School compares favorably with that found in comparable California high schools. Since this aspect of the service has been discussed in some detail in the report on organization of counseling in the school, it will not be elaborated here.

(6) Placement Services.

Basic judgment: a *weak* program.

The Suburban counselors all realize that at present they make inadequate provision for both graduates and drop-outs in the field of job finding. (It appears, however, that the counselors do provide the students with real assistance in making decisions about college entrance, scholarships, and in encouraging the students to continue their education.) This program needs to be strengthened and given more systematic attention.

(7) *Follow-up of Graduates and Drop-outs.*

Basic judgment: *weak.*

No systematic effort has been made to follow up either graduates or drop-outs. Some information is available about those students who have gone on to college. This is not complete in any systematic way, and it consists largely in a record of transcripts of students' grades sent and in the personal recall of former students who have made outstanding achievements. During the last decade, considerable emphasis has been given to systematic follow-up procedures as an aid in the evaluation of the school program. The school which has no information on the successes and failures of its product can undertake little serious evaluation of its program. Systematic provision should be made for the development of periodic surveys of former students.

(8) *Guidance and Curriculum Relationships.*

Basic evaluation: *fair to weak.*

On this point significant differences appear in the judgments made by different counselors and administrators and by the consultant. It is apparent from observing the operations of the counseling service that every effort is made by the counselor to program each student to classes in which he can find success and satisfaction. Over the years the counselors have contributed data on needs and have stimulated the development of a number of new school courses. Yet one finds little evidence that full consideration of student need is given in the development of the total program of study. The basic philosophy seems to be that of changing the student from one course to another rather than of developing the course to meet the needs of the student. It is felt that more adequate provision could be made in this school for the interrelation of observation and systematically recorded student needs with more effective courses and curriculum units. Basic recommendation of this survey deals with this need.

(9) *Guidance and Community Relationships.*

Basic judgment: *fair.*

Counselors on this staff appear to be reasonably well-informed about non-school agencies in the community which provide youth services. Few specified clinical and therapeutic services are available in the local community. Some use is made of psychological and psychiatric service in the Suburban area. Some attempt at coordination is made through the medium of a monthly staff conference in the counseling office with representatives of the county Department of Education, the Probation Department, and certain other community agencies.

No systematic coordination exists between counseling and other youth services; no clearing house for problem cases is mentioned. While this is not an outstanding weakness of the program, it is one that makes leadership and further development essential.

II

Report of Survey of Student Attitudes

One part of this survey was concerned with gathering student opinion on a number of aspects of the school program. A questionnaire was prepared for this project which included seventeen basic questions and a check list which sought student reactions to courses in the various school departments. The questionnaire was prepared at Stanford University and was first tried out on a group of students in a nearby high school. The instrument was administered during the last week of the 1952-53 school year. It was administered in regular class sessions with both the teacher and a Stanford graduate student observer present. Students were asked not to sign their names to the instrument. It is felt that this kind of anonymous survey of opinion yields more valid responses.

A total of 439 students responded to the questionnaire. These were distributed among the various classes as follows:

Freshmen	120	Sophomores	105
Juniors	97	Seniors	117

The classes selected for administration of the instrument were: Freshman Orientation, five sections; Sophomore English, four sections; U.S. History, four sections; Health Education, three sections; and California Civics, two sections.

Basically, the questionnaire presented the student with a statement concerning some aspects of the school program. He was asked to check his attitude to the statement with three categories of response: Satisfied, Dissatisfied, and No Opinion. Students were urged to read the item and give their first response to it. The data to be recorded were to represent the attitude of students toward these basic questions. No attempt has been made to determine interrelationships among various items. This may be undertaken later, but such a process would not appear to add significant information for the purposes of this survey. The sampling secured represents approximately half of the student body and should be adequate for purposes of validity.

The ages of the students responding to the questionnaire were distributed as follows:

Age	14	15	16	17	18	19	19+
Number	54	84	121	102	56	10	22

The available grades reported by these students were as follows:

A	B	C	D	F	Unknown
27	146	229	15	1	21

To the question, "What do you intend to do when you finish high school (omitting military service)?" the students responded as follows:

	Number	Percent
To go to work	114	26
To attend college	124	29 ⎫
To attend junior college	121	27 ⎬ 56
To attend a specialty school	37	8 ⎭
To become an apprentice	17	4
Other and unknown	26	6

On the whole the students in this last week of the school year gave quite a favorable reaction toward these school services. It is notable that 295 of them, or 67 percent, indicate that they are well satisfied with the help they have received in vocational planning. They feel to an even greater extent that they have received adequate help in educational planning. The spread of school courses as checked by item 7 indicates that most students feel that they have had opportunity to take courses they wanted to take. It is noteworthy, here, however, that 58 students do indicate that they would have liked to take courses which were not offered. The merit and demerit system used in the school, item 14 on the questionnaire, is, on the whole, favorably accepted by the students. Most of the students feel that their counselor knows them well.

There are some important dissatisfactions which require attention. The two items which received most unsatisfactory responses both have to do with study skills. On item 5, which pertained to help received in learning how to study, 128 students felt that this service was unsatisfactory and another 120 expressed no opinion. The parallel item, number 17, which concerned the student's judgment of his own improvement in such skills as reading, arithmetic, and written expression, found 263 (or 60 percent) of the students indicating satisfaction, 94 (or 21 percent) indicating dissatisfaction, and 82 (or 19 percent) expressing no opinion.

Consideration of other items of this survey of student opinion indicates that a substantial number of students feel that they have had little opportunity to discuss personal problems with the counselor. A significant number of students are either dissatisfied or can express no opinion on the opportunities they have had to participate in student government.

The Freshman orientation program is marked as being substantially satisfying to the majority of students, both when the total student group is considered and when the responses of the Freshman group which has just completed the course are considered. No significant difference is noted between this total and the Freshman group responses.

When one totals the numbers of Satisfied, Dissatisfied, and No Opinion responses in order to get at a generalized attitude toward school, he finds the following results:

Satisfied	Dissatisfied	No Opinion
64 Percent	15 Percent	21 Percent

While this kind of summation is difficult to define psychologically, it does represent something of a generalized feeling of the student about school. On the whole, these students are quite well satisfied with the educational program provided for them in this high school. The reaction to specific questions asked regarding selected guidance and instructional services was distributed as follows:

	SATISFIED		UNSATISFIED		No OPINION	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1. The help you have received in choosing a college, a job, or a vocation.	295	67	64	15	80	18
2. The help you have received in planning your high-school program.	377	86	40	9	22	5
3. The encouragement your counselor has given you to do your best in school.	295	67	49	11	95	22
4. The opportunity you have had to participate in club activities.	281	64	56	13	102	23
5. The help you have received in learning how to study.	191	44	128	29	120	27
6. The value of the freshman orientation.	242	55	75	17	122	28
7. The provision of school courses you really want to take.	342	78	58	13	39	9
8. The opportunities you have had to find out about college courses and entrance requirements.	241	55	89	20	109	25
9. The opportunities for you to discuss personal problems with a counselor.	227	52	72	16	140	32
10. The help you have received in finding out about occupational and employment opportunities.	248	57	92	21	99	22
11. The degree to which teachers know you well.	325	74	33	8	81	18
12. The encouragement given to student participation in school government.	277	63	65	15	97	22
13. The extent to which your parents are satisfied with the education you are receiving.	325	74	48	11	66	15

	SATISFIED		UNSATISFIED		NO OPINION	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
14. The merit and demerit system used in your school.	321	73	71	16	47	11
15. The extent to which your counselor knows you well.	317	72	37	9	85	19
16. The help you have received in learning more about your own interests, abilities, and personal characteristics.	305	70	62	14	72	16
17. The improvement you have made in such skills as reading, arithmetic, and written expression.	263	60	94	21	82	19

The Orientation Program

The ninth-grade program features both group- and individual-guidance activities. Group activity is centered in the Freshman Orientation class. This class is taught by the staff member who will be the student's counselor throughout his high-school years. It gives group attention to such topics as: physical facilities of the school; rules and regulations; student activities; self-appraisal, including testing; study of vocational opportunities; study of educational requirements; interpretations of appraisal data; goal setting and program planning. It should be noted here that Driver Education has been added to this course and takes about 45 days. Individual counseling is integrated with this group activity. During this period every student has at least one private conference with his counselor and sets up a tentative plan for his four-year high-school program. The basic elements of the student's cumulative record are also established during the freshman year.

During the tenth and eleventh grades no particular group-guidance activities are carried on. Each student does have at least one conference per year with his counselor for purposes of reviewing general plans and setting up a specific program of courses for the succeeding year. In addition to this, the counselor initiates a conference with each student about whom he receives a deficient work report or with any student who is referred by the teacher. Also, during these years the student may on his own initiative go to the counselor to discuss any personal problems.

The next major sequence of activities comes in the senior year. Here both group and individual counseling opportunities are available. The group activity may be either of two elective courses, Senior Orientation or Health Education. Both have substantial individualizing guidance values. Senior Orientation is based upon problems of the family, personal mental health, educational and vocational goals and planning, and a general reappraisal of self-concepts. This group activity is integrated with permissive individual

counseling. It should be noted that this is an elective course, but was chosen by at least half of the senior class this year.

Major Strengths and Weaknesses

Introduction: This section of the report attempts to pull together in summary form the major strengths and weaknesses which have been observed in the survey of guidance services in the Suburban schools. These statements represent conclusions reached by the consultant. In most cases the background material on which particular judgments were based will be found in other sections of the report. This is an attempt to set forth some of the major findings which require the consideration of the administrative staff and the Board of Education.

(1) Guidance services including the handling of problems of individual adjustment at the elementary-school level are basically the responsibility of the teacher and principal of each school. This is basically sound procedure. It appears to be weak at two points. The in-service teacher-education program for the development of concepts and the improvement of practices in understanding child growth and development and meeting individual needs is deficient. If the school system is to place major responsibility on the teachers, then it is necessary that a continuous program of in-service education, which can be described as a continuous program of child study, be set up. It should be noted here that many California communities which are comparable to the Suburban community have developed in-service educational programs, stimulated and sponsored by the administrative staff, which help teachers continuously to grow in professional competence.

The second deficiency is that no provision is made for consultation service for teacher or principal. Problems which cannot be effectively handled by the teacher, the principal, or the parent, remain unsolved and simply drift on from year to year. In a school system of the size of the Suburban system, provision should be made for the employment of an elementary-school psychologist or counselor who will serve both as a resource specialist for dealing with those few whose needs cannot be met by the teacher and for assisting in the continuous increase in the competence of the teacher in meeting individual needs.

(2) No recognition is made of the increased adjustment problems of youth as they enter the adolescent period in the middle of grammar-school years. It should be noted that some provision is made for meeting the needs of the low-ability student through small remedial classes, but no special provision is made for either the identifying or challenging of the gifted or for dealing with personal developmental problems.

(3) The orientation program at the high school seems well planned and effectively operated. This is a major strength of the program.

(4) Many different kinds of data about students are collected during the

ninth grade. It is questionable whether or not these data are effectively used. No attempt has been made to develop local norms on all test data which are necessary for effective interpretation. Also, no synthesis or summary of group findings is made for the purpose of informing the whole school—all teachers—of the abilities, interests, and problems of the students as a group.

(5) It follows from the above that no serious and systematic effort is made to develop curricular offerings and student activities in accordance with the identified needs. This lack of relationship between guidance and curriculum is a most critical point.

(6) During the two middle years counseling is basically limited to program planning. The short period of time available for individual consultation and the lack of real integration between teacher activity and counselor activity tends to limit the counselor's role to that of program-making and "jacking up" of deficient students. This means, again, that the gifted and those with personal problems tend to be neglected.

(7) Confusion exists concerning the purposes and activities of Senior Orientation and Health Education. Apparently one gives primary attention to mental health and the other to physical health. This is an artificial separation.

(8) The school offers very little in the way of placement services. This involves both educational and employment placement.

(9) Almost no provision is made for follow-up of either graduates or drop-outs. This condition makes real evaluation, either of counseling or of general educational offerings, almost impossible.

Recommendations

The two basic recommendations which are presented below are those which require administrative and board action. It should be noted that a number of conclusions and recommendations which deal with the further development of various aspects of the program and which are primarily the concern of the professional staff have been made at various points throughout this report. A basic recommendation to the professional staff, then, is that this report be made available to them for study and action. The two recommendations which contemplate additional services, and which involve new personnel are stated in summary form as follows:

(1) There is need for psychological services in the elementary schools. Under the California pattern this could be achieved either by contracting with the county for additional services (those provided now deal only with screening for special classes) or by the addition of a school psychologist to the central staff for primary work in elementary education. As the school population increases this latter step is to be recommended.

(2) At the high-school level a basic need is for the integration of guidance and instructional activities. It is recommended that a Director of

Guidance and of Instruction be appointed. This person should meet the qualifications now identified in California by the School Psychologist Credential. His basic task will be the development of whole-school activities which are based upon systematic evidence of student needs.

This evaluation of guidance services at Suburban High School has many limitations as well as certain positive values. Basically, it is an attempt to assess the services of a specific school according to criteria based on the judgment of leaders and writers in the professional field. The report systematically assesses the judgments of the guidance workers themselves regarding the effectiveness of their work, and it appraises the opinions of the consumers—the students in the school—regarding the services rendered. The findings result in recommendations that certain changes be made to improve the program.

Yet, in one sense this study does not report evaluation, for it does not relate outcomes to objectives. Indeed, the general objectives of the program are not explained, and the accomplishment of the program is not specified in terms of behavioral changes, measured against these objectives. Perhaps a major limitation of the study is that it is cross-sectional rather than longitudinal; it is based upon contemporary data and does not present evidence gathered from the follow-up of individual clients. This is a criticism that can be made of most surveys of American educational programs. However, a limited study of this kind should motivate the local staff to undertake a long-range assessment of its purposes and achievements. Such an assessment cannot be made in a single year, for it requires that the school administrators and counselors set forth their purposes, describe their procedures, establish behavioral criteria applicable to their objectives, and make follow-up studies to determine the extent to which the objectives are being achieved. Evaluation is a complex and difficult task, involving a long-range program of work, a high degree of objectivity, and a willingness to let the chips fall where they may.

The following forms are examples of questionnaires for high-school seniors, for parents, for high-school principals, and for school superintendents, which are of use in the evaluative process.

PUPIL-PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE SERVICES
Questionnaire for High-school Seniors

Please help in improving your school guidance program by answering the following questions. DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME.

1. School_____ 2. Sex_____ 3. Age_____
4. Do you live with your parents? Both_____ Mother only_____ Father only_____ Others_____

answers will also reveal to whom students go to discuss personal problems, and how realistically in terms of local opportunity students are making vocational choices. The process of adapting school practices to student needs can be vitally improved by such guidelines laid down by the students themselves.

PUPIL-PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE SERVICES

Questionnaire for Parents

Please help us by answering these questions but DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME.

1. How many children do you have in the elementary grades? ——
   Grades 9 —— 10 —— 11 —— 12 ——

2. How do you get information about your child's school? (Check all the following items that tell how you get information about the school.)
   1. Visiting the school. ——
   2. Going to P.T.A. ——
   3. Talking with children. ——
   4. Talking with adults. ——
   5. Reading the school newspaper, yearbook, etc. ——
   6. Reading the city newspaper. ——
   7. Listening to the radio ——
   8. Other (tell what) ——

3. Does the school provide:

	Yes	No	Don't know
1. Individual counseling services			
2. Parent interviews	——	——	——
3. Aptitude testing for your child	——	——	——
4. Educational and occupational services	——	——	——
5. Special services for meeting unusual problems	——	——	——

4. Have you had an interview this year with your child's counselor?
   Yes —— No ——

5. Do you plan for your children to go to college? Yes —— No ——

6. Has the school given you information on your child's aptitude for college? Yes —— No —— Aptitude for different occupations?
   Yes —— No —— Any special talents? Yes —— No ——

7. Does your child discuss his personal and social problems with you? Yes —— No —— With the school counselor? Yes
   —— No —— Don't know. ——

8. How would you evaluate the school's guidance program? Good ——
   Fair —— Weak ——

9. As a parent, what services would you like to see added? ——

———————————
———————————
———————————
———————————
———————————
———————————

Responses to this questionnaire can reveal such important information as the following: how effectively the school's public-relations effort is communicating its program to the public it serves, what percentage of the parents feel enough concern about their children to consult counselors,

5. Do you live in the city? ——— Country? ——— How far from School? ———

6. Do you have a part-time job? Yes ——— No ——— Chores at home? ——— Yes ——— No ——— If your answer is yes to either question, how many hours do you spend at the work? ——— Briefly explain the type of work you do. ———

7. Were you employed last summer for wages? Yes ——— No ——— What kind of job? ——— Hours per week? ——— How many weeks? ——— How did you get this job? ———

8. Does your school have an adequate extracurricular program? Yes ——— No ———

9. Do you participate in extracurricular activities? Yes ——— No ——— Briefly, what are they? ———

10. What activities would you like to see started? ———

11. How many times do you see your counselor per year? ——— Are the number of conferences you have with your counselor sufficient? ——— Insufficient? ——— With whom do you discuss personal problems? Counselor? ——— Others? (state) ——— Do you feel that your counselor knows you? Very well ——— Somewhat ——— Not at all ——— Are you generally satisfied with the counseling services in your school? Yes ——— No ———

12. Do you plan to go on to college after you graduate? Yes ——— No ——— If your answer is yes, which college will you attend? ———

13. How did you come to decide on this particular college? College catalogs and bulletins ——— School Counselor ——— Parents or friends ——— Other ———

14. Have you received help in determining what you should study in college? Yes ——— No ——— If so, from whom? ———

15. Why do you feel that you have the ability to succeed in college? ———

16. If you are going to work immediately after graduating from high school, how will you find out about job opportunities? ——— Have you received help in determining your abilities in various occupations? Yes ——— No ——— Have the work opportunities been discussed with you? Yes ——— No ———

17. What are the good points of the counseling you have received? ———

18. Briefly state what school procedures you would like to see changed in order to provide you the help you would have liked. ———

Answers to this questionnaire will provide some indication of how nearly adequate the guidance services seem to the students themselves and what kinds of shortcomings the students believe to exist in the program—such as insufficient time with counselors, insufficient occupational information to provide confidence in making choices of colleges or jobs, and insufficient self-assessment data to provide a firm basis for decisions as to careers. The

parent aspirations for students, how well students are communicating with their parents, what services the parents would like to see the school provide. Such information obviously can help the school to meet community desires.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR PUPIL-PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE SERVICES
Questionnaire for High-school Principal

Type of school: Four Year_____ Junior High_____ Senior High_____
Enrollment this date_____

The Survey Committee is interested in securing information which will enable us to describe pupil-personnel services in your school. We are particularly interested in the following areas: 1) orientation of new students; 2) information on educational and vocational opportunities; 3) individual inventories; 4) counseling; and 5) placement and follow-up.

1. Please describe your program for registering and providing orientation for new students. _____
_____
_____

2. How is educational and occupational information provided?

	Good	Fair	Weak
1. Is there an adequate collection of school and college catalogs and occupational-information bulletins?	___	___	___
2. Is the collection of occupational information easily available to teachers, counselors and students?	___	___	___
3. Are the educational and occupational information materials used in connection with planned group activities which enable all students to become familiar with them and their uses?			
1) Curriculum units on occupations	___	___	___
2) Career days	___	___	___
3) Films	___	___	___
4) Field trips	___	___	___

3. Studying the individual.
   1. Do you secure cumulative records from the elementary school? Yes_____ No_____
   2. Is the information secured sufficient to provide teachers, counselors, and administrators with the data they need about individual students? Good_____ Fair_____ Weak_____
   3. Are the records kept where they are easily accessible to counselors and teachers when they need them? Good_____ Fair_____ Weak_____
   4. Is the information accumulated about individual students regularly interpreted to the students themselves through individual counseling? Good_____ Fair_____ Weak_____
   5. Is the information accumulated about students regularly used by teachers in adjusting their classroom activities to the needs and characteristics of individual students? Good_____ Fair_____ Weak_____

4. Please list tests which are regularly used.
   Grade 9._____
   Grade 10._____
   Grade 11._____
   Grade 12._____

5. Are anecdotal reports and teacher evaluations of individual children regularly collected and compiled? Yes_____ No_____
6. Is the ability of staff members to evaluate, interpret, and use information about students systematically improved through regular in-service training activities? Yes_____ No_____
7. What is the title of the chief guidance officer in your school? _____
8. Please give the following information regarding counseling personnel:

	Number of		Number holding
	Men	Women	state credential
1. Full-time counselors	____	____	____
2. Half-time counselors	____	____	____
3. Less than half-time counselors	____	____	____
4. Number of released time counselors	____	____	____

9. Do students continue with the same counselor throughout the four years? Yes_____ No_____ If not, what is your plan?_____
_____
10. What is the average case load per counseling hour?_____
11. How many times per year does the average student see his counselor?_____
12. What is the average length of the counseling interview?_____
13. To whom do you refer difficult problems?_____
14. Do you maintain a student placement service? Please describe.
_____
15. Approximately what percent of your graduates go on to college each year?_____ What percent go to work immediately?_____
     Would you please supply us with a copy of your Cumulative Record Form, Student Handbook, Career Day Bulletin and other material which describes your guidance program.

This questionnaire and the one that follows obviously serve a variety of purposes. Not only do they provide information for a survey, but in a sense they work as a catalyst and a teaching device: the administrator who conscientiously fills out the forms must, of course, carefully consider the matters with which they confront him. If he has been unaware of the needs the questions indicate, he will be made aware of them; if he has failed to assess the extent to which these needs have been served, answering these questions will force him to evaluate how effective the guidance services of his schools have been—how smoothly the flow of pupils from elementary schools to his high school has proceeded, how well new students have been oriented to the secondary program, how well his school provides occupational information, how well the task of individual study of students has been performed, how competent his staff is to gather and use pertinent data, whether the counseling load is minimal or too great for efficiency, how well graduates are placed in jobs, and so on.

District_____ Enrollment: Elem._____Sec._____

DISTRICT ORGANIZATION FOR PUPIL-PERSONNEL SERVICES
Questionnaire for Superintendents

1. Who is responsible for leadership of the pupil-personnel or guidance services in the district?
Name_____ Position_____

2. Which of the following services are provided by the district central office? Please check:

	Service provided	No. on staff
1. Attendance supervision	____	____
2. Issuance of work permits	____	____
3. Psychological casework services	____	____
4. Psychiatric consultation	____	____
5. Social casework services	____	____
6. Bedside teachers	____	____
7. Child accounting	____	____
8. Follow-up and research	____	____

3. Have you sponsored in-service training programs in the area of pupil personnel and guidance within the last two years?
Yes_____ No_____ If yes, please describe briefly._____
_____
_____

4. What is the total number of secondary-school personnel assigned to counseling in your district? Full-time_____ Part-time_____
Number holding state counselors' credential_____

5. What procedures would be used in your district in handling the case of an emotionally disturbed child? Please describe briefly._____
_____
_____

6. What is your plan for helping students make educational and vocational plans?_____
_____
_____

7. Would you please supply us with copies of reports and documents which further describe your pupil-personnel and guidance program—for example, the annual report of the Director of Pupil Personnel; follow-up studies of graduates and drop-outs; occupational and career-days bulletins; cumulative-record forms; referral and case-report forms.

Summary

Basically, evaluation is the process of determining worth. Two important steps involved in evaluating a guidance program are: making a clear statement of the objectives of the program, and establishing criteria by which to measure how well these objectives have been attained. For example, one objective of the counseling effort is to improve student achievement, which implies a decrease in pupil failures. The criterion of this objective is student

marks. A study of student marks over a period of two or more years provides a very definite check on one phase of the counselor's work: if fewer pupils are failing at the end of the two-year period, and if the number of superior marks has increased, then student achievement has improved and the counseling program has proved its worth in this particular field. In this case, of course, evaluation of counseling is relatively simple for the data are definite, objective, and quantitative.

To evaluate student feelings and morale, however, quite different kinds of criteria and evidence must be sought; feelings and motivations have to be judged indirectly through their expression in behavior. This kind of judgment is difficult because the causes of behavior are complex and often hard to identify; even where there is clear evidence of a change of behavior, the change may have been brought about not by counseling but by some outside factor.

Nevertheless, several methods of evaluating the more subtle aspects of guidance are in use. An example is the analysis, based on interview records, of the content of the client's statements during the counseling interviews, for the purpose of finding evidence of the development of insight, which provides the psychological basis for improved behavior.

Three general types of criteria have been used to measure changes in client behavior: (1) *Normative surveys* are based on comparison of the provisions and practices in one school system with those of other systems. (2) *Follow-up studies* are used to discover whether the behavior of clients has changed by such standards as attendance, grade achievement, participation in school activities, number of referrals for disciplinary action, ability to get and hold a job, and others. Follow-up studies have disadvantages in that it is difficult to get complete and honest answers to questionnaires and it is not always possible to be sure that a specific change in behavior results from counseling and that the change is truly an improvement. (3) *Surveys of opinion* of counselors, clients, teachers, and parents is another type of criteria. Opinion, however, is undependable; the judgment of the uninformed is usually not so trustworthy as that of the well-informed, and an impulsive, emotional expression is less likely to be valid than is an objective, thoughtful conclusion, though the response of even a conscientious individual may be unwittingly warped.

Evaluation of guidance is not impossible, but worth-while evaluation is complex, and no one method is adequate. Actually, every teacher and counselor constantly judges the success of his work and changes his methods as he sees possibilities for improvement. Continued study of this process—evaluation and extensive reporting of findings in guidance literature—is needed.

SOME PROBLEMS

The following inventory, while neither a "problem" nor "project," is an example of an evaluative device of potentially significant help to the school. Answering these questions will help to give the reader some insight into the kinds of data necessary for assessing the value of a guidance program.

JUNIOR COLLEGE INVENTORY

<u>DIRECTIONS:</u> The following questions are asked for the purpose of getting information not about you personally but rather about your relationships with the college and the way you feel about your college work and activities. By answering these questions thoughtfully and honestly, you will give the college assistance in adapting its program to the needs and interests of the students. Your answers will be considered confidential.

PART I

To be answered by ALL students.

1. Which college do you attend?_____
2. Grade? 11____12____13____14____ 3. Sex? M____F____
4. Age?____ 5. Year of birth?_____ 6. Years lived in city?____
7. Years lived in state?____
8. Last other school attended?_____ City?_____
9. Do you live with your parents? Both____ Mother only____
   Father only____ 10. Father's occupation?_____ City
   where he works?_____ 11. Mother's occupation?_____
   City where she works?_____ 12. How far do you plan to
   continue your education? 12th grade____ 14th grade____ 4-year
   college____ Graduate work____ Other____ Degree desired____
13. In high school, what grades did you aim to get? High____
    Average____ Low____
14. What college subject do you like best?_____ Least_____
15. Do you like your college? Yes____ No____ Somewhat____

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16. While you were in high school, did your parents encourage you to plan to go to college? Yes_____ No_____
17. Do you miss much school because of sickness? Yes_____ No_____
18. How do you rate your reading skill? Good_____ Fair_____ Poor_____
19. How frequently do you take part in social activities? Often_____ About right_____ Seldom_____
20. How do your parents feel about your college work? Pleased_____ Satisfied_____ Dissatisfied_____
21. From which one of the following fields have you selected your major?
    _____Business   _____Social Science
    _____Engineering and Technology   _____Life Science
    _____Art   _____P. E., Health and Recreation
    _____Music   _____Military Science
    _____English   _____Mathematics and Astronomy
    _____Foreign Language   _____Physical Science
    _____Homemaking
22. What is your specific major in junior college?_____
23. What grades do you aim to get in your college work? High_____ Average_____ Get by_____
24. What is your choice of occupation? (disregard compulsory military service)_____
    Which of the following helped you make your choice? Parents_____ Friends_____ Counselor_____ Other_____
25. Have you changed your occupational goal since entering the 11th grade?
    Yes_____ No_____ How many times?_____ From what to what?
    (1)_____to_____ Circle year changed: 11 12 13 14
    (2)_____to_____ Circle year changed: 11 12 13 14
    With whom did you discuss the change? Counselor_____ Activity or Club_____ Teacher_____ Parents_____ Employer_____ Friends_____ Other (state)_____
26. Do your grades represent your best efforts? No_____ Partially_____ Yes_____
27. Which courses that you have taken do you rate as "most interesting" to you?

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(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____
Which do you wish you had included in your program but didn't?
(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____
Which do you wish you had omitted?
(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____
Can you suggest new courses that would be valuable?
(1)_____ (2)_____ (3)_____

28. In general how do you feel about college courses? Too hard_____
    Too easy_____ About right_____
29. Have you been working for a grade average that will recommend
    you to a 4-year college? Yes_____ No_____
30. In what student activities have you participated? Please check.

	Participated Yes	No	Number of Semesters	Officer Yes	No
Student Government					
Athletics					
School teams					
Intramural					
Clubs (name)					

31. In what off-campus activities have you participated?_____
    _____
32. Are the club activities adequate in number? Yes_____ No_____ Do
    students participate democratically in the control of activi-
    ties and funds? Yes_____ No_____ How do you feel about faculty
    supervision? Too much_____ Too little_____ About right_____
    Comment_____
33. Are you satisfied with opportunities provided for you to par-
    ticipate in athletic activities? Yes_____ No_____ Social
    activities? Yes_____ No_____
    Have you had enough opportunities for leadership? Yes_____ No_____
    Name any other opportunities you would like the college to make
    available._____
34. In general, do you feel that your teachers know you personally?
    Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
35. Do your parents expect you to ask their permission and give

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account to them for everything you do? Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____

36. About how many hours a week do you spend on each of the following?

Listening to radio_____   Home duties_____
Looking at television_____   Homework_____
Outdoor play_____   A paid job_____
Dates_____   Extracurricular Activities_____

37. In which of these activities do you regularly engage at home?

_____Caring for children   _____Cleaning the house
_____Cooking   _____Setting the table
_____Washing dishes   _____Sewing
_____Mending   _____Washing
_____Ironing   _____Making the house attractive
_____None of these   _____Other_____

38. Were you employed last summer? Yes_____ No_____ What kind of job?_____ Hours per week?_____ How many weeks?_____ How did you get this job?_____

_____

39. Do you have a part-time job now? Yes_____ No_____ Kind of job?_____ Hours per week?_____ Weekly earnings?_____ How did you get this job?_____

_____

40. Have summer and part-time jobs helped you prepare for your vocation? Yes_____ No_____ Somewhat_____

41. Have you had help in finding out about jobs and careers? Yes_____ No_____

42. Check any of the following which are included among your favorite "gripes."

_____No particular gripe   _____"Upper-division students"
_____Transportation   _____Athletic eligibility rules
_____Food services   _____Shop equipment
_____Athletic equipment   _____Laboratory equipment
_____Campus ground rules   _____Library
_____Homework   _____Teacher personalities
_____Attendance requirements   _____"Lower-division students"
_____Other (state)_____

43. Do you feel that your work at college—

Challenges your best efforts?.....Yes_____ Usually _____ No_____

Is failing to prepare you for
  your vocation?..................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____

Has helped you to become self-
  directive?......................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____

Has helped you improve your study
  habits?.........................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____

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Has helped you express yourself
orally?........................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
Has been limited by arbitrary
regulations?...................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
Has kept you informed of world
affairs?.......................Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
Has given only limited experience
in democratic living?..........Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
Has provided counseling which
you found helpful?.............Yes_____ Somewhat_____ No_____
44. How many times a year do you see your counselor?_____
How are interviews with your counselor initiated? His
request_____ Your request_____ Both_____
Are the number of conferences you have with your counselor
sufficient?_____ Insufficient?_____
With whom do you discuss personal problems? Counselor_____
Other (state)_____
Do you feel that your counselor knows you? Very well_____
Somewhat_____ Slightly_____
Are you generally satisfied with the counseling services at
the college? Yes_____ No_____
45. From the student and home point of view, what are the major
strengths and critical needs of the college which you have at-
tended? Constructive but frank comment is invited.
Strengths:_____
_____
_____
_____
Needs:_____
_____
_____
_____

PART II

To be answered by LOWER-DIVISION students only.

46. Did you enter junior college as a freshman?_____
As a sophomore?_____
If as a freshman, from what junior high?_____
If as a sophomore, from where?_____
47. Please estimate the values you have received from the freshman
guidance program in—
Learning about college and other
educational opportunities......Much_____ Some_____ Little_____
Learning about occupational op-

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portunities and requirements...Much_____ Some_____ Little_____
Appraising your own interests
    and abilities.................Much_____ Some_____ Little_____
Developing satisfying social and
    recreational activities........Much_____ Some_____ Little_____
Understanding personal problems..Much_____ Some_____ Little_____
Planning your school program.....Much_____ Some_____ Little_____

48. Do you plan to remain in this college after you complete the 12th grade? Yes_____ No_____ If "yes," what will be your major? _____

49. If you do not intend to remain in this college after the 12th grade, do you plan to continue your studies in some other school or college? Yes_____ No_____
If "yes," what college?_____ How long?_____
In what major field?_____

50. Do you plan to go to work after completing the 12th grade?
Yes_____ No_____
Where will you seek employment?_____
What kind of work?_____

51. How do you feel about being included with 13th- and 14th-grade students as a college group? Like_____ Dislike_____
Indifferent_____ Comment_____

PART III

To be answered by UPPER-DIVISION students only.

52. Did you enter this junior college as an 11th-grade freshman?
Yes_____ No_____
If "yes," please answer question No. 47 in Part II.

53. Do you plan to remain in this college until you have the AA degree? Yes_____ No_____
If "no," do you plan to transfer to another college before then? Yes_____ No_____
If "no," do you plan to go to work? Yes_____ No_____

54. If you plan to transfer to another college before you graduate from the 14th grade, please indicate by checking the factors in your decision.
    _____Courses I need not available here.
    _____Family moving from this area.
    _____Personal desires or family desires.
    _____Other.

55. If you plan to stop school to go to work before you graduate from the 14th grade, where will you seek employment?_____

What kind of work?_____

56. If you plan to remain here through 14th-grade graduation, do
you plan still further study after that? Yes_____ No_____
If "yes," where?_____
How long?_____ In what major field?_____

57. If you expect to remain in this college until you graduate, do
you plan to go to work immediately after graduation?
Yes_____ No_____
If "yes," where will you seek employment?_____
What kind of work?_____ For what eventual
vocation?_____

58. How do you feel about being included with 11th and 12th grade
students as a college group? Like_____ Dislike_____
Indifferent_____ Comment_____

PART IV

To be answered only by students who graduated from high schools
outside the city.

59. In what grade were you when you decided to go to this
college?_____

60. How did you learn about opportunities here?
_____Catalogs and bulletins   _____High-school counselor
_____Junior college counselor   _____Visits to the campus

61. What is your opinion of the counseling you received before you
enrolled? Excellent_____ Adequate_____ Inadequate_____

62. Have you made new friends in junior college? Yes_____ No_____

63. Do you feel that you "belong" at junior college? Yes_____ No_____

THANK YOU

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Counselor Qualifications
and Credentials

THE PREPARATION OF THE COUNSELOR

LEGAL REQUIREMENTS FOR
COUNSELING CREDENTIALS IN TWENTY-ONE STATES

THREE SETS OF PROPOSALS

THE COUNSELOR — SCIENTIST AND ARTIST

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

AT THE REAR of the classroom the tall ninth-grader looks up from his test paper and stares across the aisle at the paper of the student next to him. The teacher walks quickly across the room, snatches up the tall boy's paper and crumples it in his fist as he says, "You're copying!"

"I wasn't copying," the boy replies.

"I saw you."

The teacher throws the examination paper into the wastebasket and opens his record book to place an F beside the boy's name. The teacher's face is calm; inwardly, however, he is disturbed. . . . Incidents of this kind happen often, he thinks. When classes are large and standards are kept high, some students, finding the pressure too great, take short cuts. But the incident is not too serious; the student has received a needed reprimand

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and will think twice before he copies again. Moreover, other students in the room have received a salutary object lesson: if you crib, you'll be found out; you'll be humiliated in front of all the other students. Perhaps it is hard on the cheater; but cheating is in a small way a crime, and the young person who cheats is fortunate if he is taught a lesson that forestalls such tendencies. After all, life is tough, and a realistic look at the consequences of misbehavior is a wholesome thing.

Despite this train of thought, the teacher cannot dismiss the incident from his mind. Doubt assails him. Was this, in the long run, the best method of handling such a breach of discipline?

The culprit sits with his eyes downcast, his face flushed, his mouth twisted bitterly. He's taking it hard, the teacher thinks; but he brought it on himself. A neighbor whispers to the boy; he looks up and grins uneasily, managing a bit of defiance. The instructor sighs; the incident leaves him with a sense of frustration, for the boy has always seemed somehow unreachable.

But was this, after all, the best way to handle the incident? "What else," the instructor asks himself, "could I have done? Ask the boy to come see me after class and tell him that I saw him cheating? No doubt he'd have denied it. But then I could have compared his paper with his neighbor's and the proof would have been positive. But the cheater might have argued that the other boy copied from him! Or that the similarity—if the papers showed similar mistakes—was mere coincidence; or, if both were correct, that he and his neighbor had each solved the problems. No. The impact of being caught in the act and publicly exposed would do more to kill the student's temptation to cheat than any other treatment; it really burned into him the consequences of misbehavior. . . ."

At home that night the student blurts out the incident to his father; the next day, the father comes to the school to see the boy's counselor.

"If the boy had been cheating," the father says, "he would have felt guilty and wouldn't have mentioned the matter to me. He claims that he was almost finished, that he had about ninety-five percent of the problems answered correctly; that he was just sitting there, staring at nothing, thinking about a problem, and was not copying. He wasn't aware of the other boy's paper at all—and he was simply stunned when the teacher swooped down on him and grabbed up his paper. I believe my son. He's always been honest with me. He says that, anyway, if he had wanted to cheat, why in the world would he copy from a neighbor who's always getting F, while he himself has been steadily getting good grades?"

The counselor listens and turns a pencil in his fingers, thinking that parents always defend their children.

The father says, "If this teacher really believed the boy was cheating, why didn't he compare the two papers? He didn't even look at the answers! Just crumpled my son's paper up and threw it away! That's the kind of behavior you'd expect of a hard-boiled sergeant in the army. My youngster has had a hard time getting friendly with his teachers. This experience won't help."

The counselor sees this. He sees a number of things. After this incident, how well is the boy going to relate to the teacher? And how will it influence the boy's attitude toward the subject matter? He had been doing well in the subject, and might later even major in it. Would this setback cause him to shrink from it in distaste and uneasiness? Would this incident make it harder for him to establish rapport with other teachers?

"I told him," the father continues, "that he ought to go see his counselor, that it's your job to straighten out matters like this. He refused. He says that the kids say that when they go to see a counselor nothing happens. They say that counselors are just crying towels; you weep, and that's the end of it."

The counselor feels himself flushing. This is unfair; the father should know that. Of course, in many cases the counselor does little more than listen to a student, but in those cases, listening is all that is needed; the mere act of talking out his troubles to a sympathetic listener provides the relief the student needs to free himself of an emotional problem.

"Can you do something about this?" the father asks.

"I'll do all I can," the counselor says. "If the boy was cheating—"

"Does he have a record of cheating?"

"No."

"And the teacher, after all, didn't compare the two papers. He can't be sure. Look, my boy needs help."

"I'll work on it," the counselor says.

"Maybe the boy ought to be moved out of that class?"

"That's a possibility, but if your boy's sensitive, how is he going to feel about being changed in the middle of the semester? He will appear to be getting a lot of unsavory attention, and he may feel guilty and wish he'd never opened his mouth about the matter."

The father nods, his face troubled.

"He didn't want me to come see you. He didn't want me to do anything about it."

"I'm glad you did come."

"That teacher owes my boy an apology!"

"Unless your boy actually was cheating."

"He wasn't! The teacher made a mistake. You've got to tell him so!"

The counselor sighs. He pictures what would happen if he walked in and said to the teacher, "Look, Ed, the boy was just daydreaming, and you lost your temper and bawled him out for something he didn't do." The teacher would simply retort, "I say the boy was cheating! I saw him!" And after that the teacher would never cooperate with the counselor again.

The counselor rises, assuring the father that he will work with both teacher and student to remedy the situation, and the father leaves, somewhat reassured.

Such incidents are not unusual; and they frequently complicate school life. The individuals involved—student, teacher, and parent—may be all essentially normal people who function relatively well. Nevertheless, such incidents create difficult problems for the counselor, for anxieties have been aroused and defenses are operating; the student faces frustration and deterioration of learning readiness, and relations between the school staff and the parent group are threatened. What kind of training and what personal qualities will the counselor need to unravel this tangle of human relations?

The counselor's task, of course, is to reconstruct an effective working relationship between teacher and student. To do this, he must be aware of all the troublesome ramifications of the problem. On the one hand, he must realize the threat which this situation poses for the teacher, the importance of the teacher's status with the class, the importance of respecting the teacher's sense of values, and the extent of the teacher's ego involvement in the crisis. On the other hand, the counselor must also understand the boy's developmental status and needs and the effect of this incident upon his motivation and attitude toward learning. These elements are the most immediate aspects of the problem; it may have repercussions in the rest of the school and in the community.

The counselor must work within the limits of and in the spirit of specific procedures operating in the school—the methods of marking and evaluation, the methods of discipline and group control, the patterns of teacher-administrator relationships. And he must consider special circumstances: the teacher may be defensive or receptive to suggestions, depending upon how much personal threat he senses in the situation; and the degree of threat may in turn depend upon whether the teacher is experienced and has the security of job tenure or is new and has probationary status. The counselor's efforts, moreover, must harmonize with parent expectations; therefore he must know the community in general and the boy's father in particular. Some communities want students held to a high level of subject-matter achievement by discipline that is almost military in its rigidity, others

are far more sensitive to mental-health needs; and, of course, the attitudes of individual parents vary from complete indifference to over-concern regarding their children's school experiences.

All these factors form the background of the counselor's analysis of the problem and influence his methods of solving it. As he plans his campaign, he must settle questions of procedure. Should he deal separately with student, teacher, and parent? If so, in what order should he see them? Or should he set up a conference involving two or more? His first objective is to calm all the parties concerned and to relieve their tensions and anxieties about the problem, for not until then will it be fruitful to explore the objective facts in the case. To achieve this necessary climate of reasonableness, he must give each participant a chance to express his honest feelings about the incident.

When this has been accomplished, the counselor acquaints the teacher with the entire school record of the student's behavior and achievement, focusing upon the question of whether or not the boy has ever before cheated in a test. In this task the counselor will utilize all his personal knowledge of the student and all the pertinent information revealed by the cumulative record. Similarly, the counselor helps the boy to understand the nature of the teacher's responsibility in the classroom and the many difficulties of controlling a group of young people with varying needs and personalities so as to make effective learning possible for them all. Understanding these things will help the student to realize that honest errors of observation are possible. The parent, too, must be helped by the counselor to appreciate the complexities of the classroom situation. A final step, then, after each participant in the incident has gained understanding of the others' feelings and intentions, is to arrange a conference to plan a definite solution to the problem: the student may be given a chance to take the examination again, without prejudice. This process of smoothing out tangled human relations can be a learning experience of value to all concerned.

It is apparent that to solve such problems as this one the counselor must possess special personal qualifications: tact, tolerance, acumen, resourcefulness, the ability to empathize, the ability to be objective, and a sense of personal security. To elaborate: he must have the sympathy and imagination to place himself in another's circumstances; he must feel the warm acceptance of others that enables him to be deeply sensitive to their feelings, to avoid putting others on the defensive and arousing hostility, to gain cooperation, and to *think with* participants in their conflicts so as to help them achieve positive outcomes to their problems. He must have the intellectual ability to analyze difficult problems of relationships among people, skill in interpersonal relations, and skill in communication. And,

in order to help others gain inner security, he must achieve ego-security himself.

In addition to these personal qualities, the counselor must have a good background in the study of psychological and social dynamics of human relationships, an understanding of the purposes and processes of the school, and of the nature of the community, including its educational values and child-rearing practices; and he must have a clear concept of the role of the counselor and be intensively trained to function in that role. The importance of these personal qualifications and professional competencies form the basis of the proposals for counselor qualifications and training that follow.

The Preparation of the Counselor

Much has been written during the past decade on the professional preparation of the counselor. Various committees have examined the training of counselors now in service, have studied their responsibilities and activities, and have made recommendations for the development or improvement of counselor-training programs. According to Scales' study of counselor-training programs at the graduate level in about forty colleges and universities, a great deal of variation exists both as to the *nature of the task* for which the counselor is being trained and as to the *nature of the training programs* offered to him.[1] These differences are emphasized by the fact that the training programs are offered in separate departments of the various colleges and universities—in departments of education, psychology, human development, and social work. Schools of medicine, too, offer training programs for psychiatrists and, in some cases, for psychiatric social workers.

These programs inevitably differ because of concentration upon different disciplines. Some institutions see the counseling program as chiefly concerned with vocational guidance and consequently emphasize appraisal of vocational ability, occupational information and trends, job-preparation, and placement. Other institutions see the counselor as an educational-guidance official and emphasize in their training the various areas of curriculum, school organization, achievement and diagnostic testing, program planning, and coordination among various schools and among various school departments.

[1] H. H. Scales, *Counselor Training at the Advanced-Degree Level in Selected Colleges and Universities.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1950.

Points of View

Several distinct points of view toward guidance have developed among psychologists.[2] Because some psychologists have emphasized evaluation, tests and measurements have been developed in the areas of individual differences and other quantifiable and measurable aspects of growth, development, the learning processes, and the application of learning theory in teaching.

Clinical counselors, who use the directive approach essentially, emphasize diagnosis, prognosis, careful structuring of interviews, and follow-up as a major evaluative technique. They believe that the professional counselor should be well grounded in academic psychology.

The nondirective counselors emphasize the area of personality in their psychological training and are equally insistent upon intensive training in the counseling process. Training in nondirective counseling includes a great deal of actual interviewing experience; training interviews are recorded and are later analyzed in considerable detail from the point of view of structure and understanding of the effect of various degrees of counselor participation, as well as for the discovery of results of counseling which are expressed in the verbal responses of the client.

General Objectives

Curriculum specialists in professional schools maintain that a guiding principle in planning curriculums is a careful consideration of the job for which the students are being prepared: exactly what will students taking the course have to do when they are at work in their professions? The California State Department of Education, in a bulletin entitled *Improving Guidance Programs*, proposes three over-all functions of the secondary-school guidance program. These are:

1. To assist the individual student to achieve an increasing degree of maturity in working toward the solution of his various personal problems.
2. To assist the school staff in securing, interpreting, and using information concerning students.
3. To assist the school and its staff in understanding and working closely with the community it serves.[3]

[2] See Leona E. Tyler, *The Work of the Counselor*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953, Chapter 11; and Edward S. Borden, *Psychological Counseling*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955, Chapter 2.

[3] Donald E. Kitch and William H. McCreary, *Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, XIX:8 (Dec. 1950), Chapter 1.

These are broad statements of function, of course; however, they can be analyzed and broken down into the actual details of a typical counselor's methods of carrying them out. Detailed analysis, in turn, suggests broad areas in which counselors must receive training. The counselor-training structures presented later in this book will deal with these areas, for they are in harmony with the view of counseling developed here.

Specialist or Generalist

The areas of responsibility of a counselor are broad: he functions as educator, as psychologist, as sociologist, as social worker, and even as research technician. The broad range of his activities suggests that he must be a person with training and experience in a number of fields; at the university level, in fact, these areas are the responsibilities of a number of academic departments. In some situations, the school counselor can call upon a variety of services from a central office—a visiting teacher, a social worker, a placement worker, a consulting psychologist, a research technician. But in situations in which the counselor does not have these resources, he himself must function in these roles. At the same time, as a member of the school team, he meets with the faculty on matters pertaining to the general education program and to administrative policy as well as on matters pertaining to the adjustment and progress of individual students. Many school counselors believe that much of their most effective work is achieved through their contacts with other teachers. Even casual meetings in the hallway or the lunchroom can help in communication; the counselor who informs an English teacher, in confidence, that the parents of one of her students are being divorced can help the teacher to understand why a capable student has recently been inattentive.

This breadth of activity seems to indicate that the school counselor is not a specialist, in the usual academic meaning of the term, but a "generalist." It is an interesting commentary on the guidance field that a counselor in the public school, in spite of the great variety of his activities, is considered a specialist. It is probably true that the classroom teacher in a typical secondary school is much more of an educational specialist in reference to his particular body of subject matter or academic discipline than is the counselor.

These observations on the nature of the task of counseling suggest a framework for the consideration of counselor training. The various aspects of the guidance program which we have covered suggest that counselors require background preparation in at least three broad areas of college courses: education, psychology, and social sciences.

Legal Requirements for Counseling Credentials in Twenty-one States

By 1951, twenty-one states had established legal qualifications for school counselors and other student-personnel workers in public schools. This movement toward the requirement of legal certification represents an increased recognition of counseling as a school function and of the need for trained personnel to carry out this function. In almost all states, training and experience as a teacher are prerequisites for the counselor certification program. The counselor is thus a teacher with special preparation for individual guidance work. In no case among the credentials established so far is more than one year of training beyond the A.B. degree required. In most states, the requirements can be met in about one semester of graduate work.

The insistence upon teacher training and teaching experience reflects the view that school counseling is intimately related to the instructional program. It reflects also the view that the counselor must be able to understand school conditions and to work effectively with teachers. However, this demand that counselors must first be teachers seriously limits the degree of specialization that can be expected of aspirants. Few young people entering upon professional work in education are financially able to devote the time and effort to meeting two sets of professional qualifications. Nevertheless, gains in professional recognition and training programs have been made in recent years.

A summary of the certification standards in twenty-one states follows. These statements concern only the academic preparation required.

Arkansas: A.B. degree, teaching certificate, 15 semester hours distributed among four specific areas.

Arizona: (1) A.B. degree, teaching certificate, 15 semester hours distributed among 5 specific areas. (2) M.A. degree or 30 semester hours with 24 hours distributed among five specific areas.

Connecticut: A.B. degree, teaching certificate, 18 semester hours in guidance and related courses.

Delaware: (1) A.B. degree, teaching certificate, 6 semester hours in 2 specific guidance courses. (2) Provisional certificate and 15 semester hours in four specific guidance courses.

Georgia: (1) Teaching certificate and 15 quarter hours in guidance courses with one overview course. (2) Teaching certificate and M.A. degree or 55 quarter hours graduate work including choice of nine courses distributed among three specific areas.

Illinois: Teaching certificate and 12 semester hours, one specific course in each of seven areas.

Indiana: M.A. degree or the equivalent with 18 semester hours of guidance courses distributed among at least six of fourteen listed courses.

Maine: (1) A.B. degree, 18 semester hours of guidance courses including two specific courses. (Qualifies candidate for a one-year provisional certificate.) (2) First provisional certificate plus six semester hours including three specific courses. (Qualifies candidate for renewal of second provisional.) (3) Second provisional certificate plus six semester hours including three specific courses. (Qualifies for third provisional certificate.) (4) Third provisional certificate plus six semester hours including three specific courses. (5) Full certification is based on completion of the entire sequence.

Maryland: (1) Teaching certificate plus six semester hours of guidance in three specific areas. (2) Certificate plus twelve semester hours of guidance courses in six areas.

Massachusetts: A.B. degree (M.A. may be required locally) plus completion of seven courses (four guidance, one sociology, one economics, one political science).

Missouri: (1) Teaching certificate plus twelve semester hours in seven specific areas. (2) In addition to above, ten semester hours in eight specified areas.

Montana: Teaching certificate plus fifteen semester hours in eleven listed guidance courses.

New Hampshire: (1) Teaching certificate plus fifteen semester hours in seven listed guidance areas. (2) Teaching certificate and M.A. degree or equivalent including 24 semester hours in four specific guidance areas.

New Jersey: (1) A.B. degree, 30 semester hours of background courses and 48 semester hours distributed among psychology, guidance, vocational education, tests and measurements, and field work. (2) Experience only.

New York: (1) A.B. degree or equivalent plus six semester graduate hours. Undergraduate and graduate program should include 24 semester hours of professional courses: 18 approved for secondary-school teachers and 7 in principles and techniques of guidance. (2) 30 semester hours of graduate work plus 24 hours of guidance work.

Ohio: Teaching certificate plus 40 semester hours in guidance, psychology, tests and measurements, education, economics, and sociology (not more than 25 hours on the undergraduate level).

Pennsylvania: (1) Teaching certificate plus 18 semester hours in specified guidance courses. (2) Minimum course requirements in four specific areas.

Texas: A.B. degree, teaching certificate, and 18 hours of course work in guidance and counseling.

Utah: (1) A.B. degree or equivalent, teaching certificate, and 12 semes-

ter hours in specified areas. (2) M.A. degree or 55 quarter hours graduate work, certificate, and specialized training in guidance techniques and procedures.

Vermont: (1) Teaching certificate and 15 semester hours within last 10 years in six specific courses. (2) Provisional certificate plus 15 additional semester hours distributed among listed courses.

Wyoming: Teaching certificate, graduation from approved college, three quarter hours in principles of guidance plus 20 quarter hours in five specific areas.

Three Sets of Proposals

Proposals of the National Vocational Guidance Association

The National Vocational Guidance Association and several related psychological and personnel groups issued in 1949 a basic statement, entitled *Counselor Preparation,* which has had considerable influence upon the nature of training programs subsequently developed. The statement presented the following points on qualifications and core areas of training:

1. *Personal qualifications of the counselor:* High scholastic aptitude; interests typical of persons successfully working with people—both measured and expressed interests; a personality characterized by emotional maturity, good general adjustment, and ability to be objective as indicated by experience records, interviews, tests, and ratings.

2. *Experience:* Experience in the type of organization in which the counselor expects to be employed. Vocational counselors, moreover, should have some experience in business or industry.

3. *Training:* (a) Background training: psychology, sociology, economics, and statistics. (b) Levels of training: (1) temporary certificate: one year of graduate work; (2) professional status: two years of graduate work, including at least three months of supervised experience or internship, although one year of internship is desirable.

4. *Core areas of training:* (a) Philosophy and principles of guidance. (b) Development of the individual: growth and maturation, learning, emotional development, motivation, individual differences, personality adjustment, social and cultural factors affecting behavior. (c) Methods of studying the individual: observation, autobiographies, interviews, tests and inventories, records, physical-capacities appraisals, reports from professional sources, questionnaires, sociometric techniques, rating scales, anecdotal records, projective techniques, home visits, and syntheses of data. (d) Collection, evaluation, and use of occupational, educational, and related in-

formation: classification of jobs in industry; occupational trends in relation to socioeconomic changes; sources of occupational and related information; evaluation of such information; maintenance of up-to-date occupational-information materials; collection of information regarding local training facilities, placement facilities, etc. (e) Administrative and community relationships: administrative problems; relationships between guidance services and community. (f) Techniques used in counseling: the counseling interview; information about the counselee; exploration into and utilization of client experiences; referral resources; records of counseling data; initiation of counseling relationship; termination of counseling relationship. (g) Supervised experience in counseling.

5. *Additional training areas for educational and vocational counselors:* (a) Group methods in guidance (vocational-education and personal-problems groups): values, limitations, and applications of group methods; group techniques and tools; interrelationships with individual counseling in the total program; evaluation of group methods. (b) Placement: basic techniques of placement; legislation affecting placement; evaluation of placement services; placement services found in the community. (c) Follow-up techniques: case-study techniques; cross-section sampling methods; horizontal and longitudinal programs. (d) Methods of research and evaluation: types of general research studies; types of evaluative studies; planning and setting up research, organization, and reduction of data; application of appropriate statistical methodology.

Counselor Credential Proposals in California, 1953

A broadly based study of the need for certificated counselors and other student-personnel workers has been under way in California for a three-year period. In this state, a representative committee sponsored by the State Department of Education has attempted to formulate basic credentials which would provide legal sanction for the employment of special workers in the following four areas of student personnel service: child welfare and attendance supervisors, counselor, school social worker, school psychologist and psychometrist. During the course of this study the committee has applied job-analysis techniques to the discovery of the functions of personnel in each of these areas of service, and from these data an analysis of common and unique functions has been made. The large amount of overlapping found in the functions of the four specializations suggested the possibility of a general pupil-personnel credential with four areas of specialization.

Excerpts from the report of this committee follow:

In California the four groups—psychologists, counselors, social workers, and child welfare and attendance workers—bring specialized skills and

techniques to supplement and assist the work of the teachers. These four groups are especially concerned with the needs and feelings of individual children. Their primary purpose is to understand children and to use this understanding cooperatively for the improvement of the total school program.

The major activities in which all four groups engage are the following:

1. Working with individual children for the purpose of assisting them toward better adjustment.

2. Working with parents in order to improve parent-child relationships.

3. Referring individual children to other community agencies or special service agencies.

4. Conducting in-service training programs for teachers and parent study groups in the areas of child development and mental health.

Each of the four groups of school personnel workers emphasizes the significance of teacher-pupil relationships and the importance of the teacher in meeting the child's needs. While concerned with *all* children, by the nature of their work much of the attention of these workers is directed toward helping children with special problems.

Within the framework of this common basic function and within the limitations of their professional training and experience, each of these personnel workers carries on activities in areas of special emphasis with special techniques and skills.

Problems are referred to the child welfare and attendance supervisor *primarily* by reason of difficulties involving attendance, employment, and general child welfare-community relationships. Problems are referred to the school social worker *primarily* when it appears that the child is reacting to disturbed home and family relationships. Problems are referred to the school counselor *primarily* because of difficulties arising from relationships within the school, in the field of parent and teacher relationships, in problems of programming, or in vocational guidance. Problems are referred to the school psychologist *primarily* because of individual learning difficulties requiring the use of special methods of appraisal and understanding children.

On the basis of this analysis of functions, the committee proposed a training program which contains a common core of preparation for all pupil-personnel workers and certain specialized requirements focusing sharply on each of the four fields. Although many guidance authorities consider this a minimum program, it does represent a sincere pioneer effort to define the common training needs of school personnel workers.

Excerpts from the committee report give the following details of this training program:

An applicant for the general pupil-personnel credential shall have completed a program including the following requirements:

(a) A four-year college course with a bachelor's degree granted by an institution accepted for credentialing purposes by the California State Board of Education.

(b) Two years of successful teaching experience, or one year of successful teaching experience and one year of appropriate supervised field experience, or two years of supervised field experience of which at least one year shall be in a public school.

(c) The program of undergraduate or graduate studies shall include a minimum of 24 semester hours of work distributed approximately as follows:

(1) Twelve semester hours in educational and psychological foundations including work in each of the following areas:
   A. Growth and development.
   B. Educational psychology.
   C. Measurement and evaluation.
   D. Mental hygiene.
(2) Six semester hours in sociological foundations including work in each of the following areas:
   A. Socioeconomic foundations of school personnel work.
   B. Cultural anthropology.
(3) Six semester hours in professional courses including work in each of the following areas:
   A. Introduction to principles and practices of student-personnel work.
   B. Introduction to group-work techniques.

(d) One year of 30 semester hours of postgraduate work of upper division or graduate level or a year of postgraduate preparation which an accredited institution certifies as fulfilling institutional requirements for a postgraduate year of work. This program of graduate studies shall include courses, field work and the interpretation and application of research data including experiences in each of the following areas:

(1) Required subject group.
   A program of course work and field experiences organized around a supervised internship of not less than 20 hours per week for 15 weeks designed to develop an understanding and appreciation of school personnel problems, situations, procedures and methods including specific coverages of the following areas:
   A. Counseling procedures and techniques, including interviewing.
   B. Advanced mental hygiene.
   C. Case-study and case-conference techniques.
   D. Psychology and education of exceptional children.
   E. The dynamics of family relationships, pupil-teacher, teacher-parent, and pupil-pupil relationships.
   F. The methods and materials of family counseling including

experience in working with parent groups, home visits, parent conferences, and problems of home and school.

G. Experiences in the use of community resources including agencies and organizations which provide services to individuals and/or groups.

H. Laws relating to children and child welfare.

I. Organization, administration, and evaluation of pupil-personnel programs.

(2) Elective subject group.

In addition to the requirements listed in (d) (1), each applicant shall complete the requirements in at least one of the following fields of school personnel work.

A. School counseling, including:
1. Educational, vocational, and personal guidance.
2. Advanced training in procedures of counseling including supervised field experience.

B. Child welfare and attendance or school social work, including:
1. Case work, with supervised field experience in a recognized agency or clinic dealing with family or children's problems.
2. The application of local, federal, and state laws relating to the education, employment, and welfare of school-age youth.

C. School psychometry, including:
1. Advanced training and experience in individual and group testing.
2. Advanced training in educational psychology; including the education of exceptional children, measurements and statistics, and the psychology of learning.

D. School psychology. In addition to the requirements for school psychometry (2) (C), an additional graduate year shall be required including work in:
1. Individual diagnostic procedures.
2. Advanced case-study techniques.
3. Remedial instruction techniques.
4. Individual and group therapy including supervised laboratory and field experience with school-age youngsters.[4]

The California proposals are regarded as a step toward the improvement of school personnel services, for acceptance of these proposals would make it possible for the large school to secure specialized workers in each area and for the small school to employ a nonspecialist who has some preparation in all the areas. It should be noted that these recommendations involve compromises from each of the special groups.

[4] California State Department of Education, *The Preparation and Training of Pupil-Personnel Workers*, Bulletin XXI:3 (1952), pp. 57 ff.

American Psychological Association Proposals

The standards for school-counselor training proposed by the California group are quite low compared to those recommended by a committee of the Division of Counseling and Guidance of the American Psychological Association, which has suggested that the title *counseling psychologist* be applied to the fully qualified person in this field. The Association's carefully prepared report describes a training program which closely parallels the training of the clinical psychologist and resembles in many ways the standards of medical education.[5] The Ph.D. program proposed by this committee requires four years of study, one of which is similar to an internship. A minimum program of two years of graduate study is also described. Provision is made in both these programs for both breadth and specialization.

In the thinking of this committee, the counselor is a professional psychologist and must be given the opportunity to acquire the basic concepts, research skills, and practical tools and techniques useful to all psychologists. Excerpts from this report are included here in order to give substance to this professionally oriented view of the training of the counselor.

In addition to the common core, the doctoral program should include the following areas:

1. *Personality organization and development:* This is an area of central importance to the counselor psychologist. Included in this area would be opportunities for review of academic theories of personality as well as those theories implicit in current concepts and practices of counseling and psychotherapy. It should also include opportunities for analysis of developmental patterns of behavior from a longitudinal as well as a cross-sectional point of view. Emphasis should be placed on the variability of developmental patterns rather than on the frequency of discrete items of behavior. This area should also include analysis of the psychological characteristics of deviant individuals including abnormal personalities, intellectual and social deviates. Special attention should also be given to sociocultural aspects of behavior, to the social and cultural determinants of personality as well as social learning and communication as factors in the development of personality.

2. *Knowledge of social environment:* In addition to knowing how individuals learn to interact within the social groups it is assumed that the psychologist counselor must be familiar with a great many aspects of our social structure. First, he must be familiar with the resources to be found in any community and with methods for locating these resources. He must be able to ascertain what resources there are for aiding people to obtain em-

[5] Edward S. Borden *et al.*, "Recommended Standards for Training Counseling Psychologists at the Doctorate Level," *Am. Psychol.*, VII (June 1952), pp. 175-181.

ployment, financial aid, health services, etc. Second, he must have considerable knowledge about occupations and the sources for continuing to increase his knowledge. He may need to know a good deal about various kinds of educational facilities and how they are organized, how much time is involved in training, and similar questions. Third, he should know a good deal about marriage and family patterns and sexual mores. It is important for him to be familiar with the heterogeneity of subgroup patterns within our culture.

3. *Appraisal of the individual:* This is another area of central importance to the counselor psychologist. He should acquire extensive knowledge of and skill in using psychological tests. This includes basic training in the use and interpretation of projective techniques and the use of informal methods of group and individual appraisal through interviews, autobiographies, questionnaires and other personal documents. The counseling psychologist's diagnostic competence should be maximal in order to make proper referrals and to utilize to the fullest extent information about those individuals with whom he is fitted to work on an intensive basis.

4. *Counseling theory:* The program should involve a comprehensive review of the major theories of counseling and psychotherapy. Not only should the student gain extensive familiarity with basic ideas and techniques involved in individual counseling and therapeutic work, but he should also be introduced to such procedures as group therapy, group discussion techniques with a variety of kinds of groups and utilization of student activity programs, mental hygiene lectures and bibliotherapy. An awareness should be developed here of the advantages and limitations of these various group methods and of their possibilities in complementing each other.

5. *Professional orientation:* We feel that an important aspect of the training of the counselor psychologist involves his developing sensitivity and sophistication regarding his responsibilities and interprofessional relationships, the many ethical considerations involved in practice, and the problems posed by the necessity for his maintaining a balance between his loyalties to his clients, to the institutions of which he is a part, and to society. Still another desideratum is his developing an awareness of the various organizational and administrative patterns characteristic of counseling agencies of various types and the professional implications of such structures.

How this goal is to be implemented is deliberately left as an open question in this report since training agencies will differ in terms of the ways which they will find to meet this relatively small but vital part of the counselor preparation. Some will prefer to cultivate the relevant attitudes and knowledges through a formal course late in the doctoral sequence. Others will choose to do the job through seminars and informal discussions during the internship period. Still others may find it most feasible and successful to handle the matter of professional orientation through the super-

visory or the student-adviser relationships. Obviously, it is important for all training experiences to be implicitly permeated with proper regard for problems of a professional nature. However approached, the task of developing an adequate orientation to the profession of psychological counseling, while it should not consume a great deal of time and should receive its greatest explicit emphasis late in the student's career, must be regarded as an integral part of the training process.

INTERNSHIP AND PRACTICUM

The major practical experience that the prospective counselor psychologist can obtain during his training period is the internship. We feel that no one should be accepted as meeting the level of training of the doctorate in counseling unless his training includes a one-year internship or equivalent. We do not think it is appropriate to specify whether this year of internship should best be acquired during a single calendar year or whether it would be more appropriate to acquire it over two calendar years through half-time work. It is anticipated that patterns will vary according to the situation. We do think that it is important that this experience be obtained after the student has acquired the majority of, if not all, the didactic background specific to the counseling experience. We feel that it is also important that the internship be preceded by brief supervised experiences where both diagnostic and therapeutic activities are undertaken but with less responsibility. Further, we do not feel that such experiences without adequate supervision will serve training needs. The counselor should be exposed to a wide range of counseling and therapeutic situations, but the major emphasis should be upon work with normal clients with positive and preventive therapeutic goals. It is essential, however, that some of his experience should be in a psychiatric setting.

It should be noted that the statement presented above represents the views of a group of professional leaders in the field. It is not a description of the program of any particular training institution, nor does it represent any legal or public-school sanction. It represents, in fact, a more thorough program of professional training than legal standards now require. The report presents a view of what counselor training ought to be rather than what it actually is—the goal which leaders in the profession see as desirable; as such, it provides both the student seeking training and the institution offering training some guide lines for developing a program.

The Counselor — Scientist and Artist

It has often been said that counseling is both a science and an art: it is a science in its dependence on systematic knowledge and objectivity, and it is

SOME PROBLEMS

1. Counseling in the elementary school is a relatively new venture and hence little systematic work has been done in establishing training programs for professional workers in this field. One school committee proposed that the elementary-school counselor should be responsible for the following activities:

General Services

a. Testing program.
  (1) Make provision for ordering and administering tests—survey, intelligence, achievement, individual, and other.
  (2) Interpret results.
  (3) Make provision for the scoring of group tests—may be done by junior clerk, classroom teacher, or by counselor when necessary.
b. Gathering, organizing and keeping significant pupil data (permanent record, pupil-analysis blank, etc.).
c. Recording and filing of all pupil data.
d. Routine procedures for transferring pupils.
e. Aiding principal in registering pupils.
f. Assisting principal in the selection of pupils who need individual work.

Services Concerning the Child with a Problem

a. Helping teachers to understand, accept and deal more effectively with the individual child who presents special problems in behavior and learning or who is emotionally and socially maladjusted.
b. Gathering data about the child through observation, testing, interviews, etc.

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AND PROJECTS

c. Utilizing and coordinating the services of school personnel workers who contribute to the welfare of the child.
d. Helping the principal in conferring with parents in an effort to arrive at a satisfactory plan of action which would be most beneficial to their child.
e. Cooperating with local agencies when they are concerned with an individual child with a problem.
f. Working with the child directly when that seems advisable.

Services Concerned with Teachers

a. Helping teachers to accept and understand all children.
b. Helping teachers individually and in groups, through demonstrations and conferences, to develop acceptable techniques of collecting, interpreting, and using behavioral data.
c. Assisting principals in guiding teachers in making constructive and wise reports to parents.
d. Organizing pupil-study conferences and interesting teachers in participating in them.
e. Helping teachers use group work as an adjustive process for making pupils feel that they "belong."
f. Assisting principals in planning programs for faculty meetings which would make for greater understanding of the guidance point of view.
g. Being genuinely concerned with the mental health of the teacher, giving her as much help and support as possible.

A. *For those students who plan to work at the elementary level:*
   1. Develop a training program for the preparation of qualified people for the services listed above. Consider the following areas:
      a. teacher training
      b. teacher experience
      c. development of psychological background
      d. development of psychological service skills
      e. general-education background
   2. Analyze your own preparation in terms of the structure that you have proposed for (1) above. Conclude with a statement in parallel columns of your own strengths and deficiencies for such work.
B. *For those students who plan to work at the secondary level:* In Chapter 7 you will find a statement of activities of the secondary-school counselor similar to that given above for elementary-school counselors.
   1. Prepare a training program for the development of professional workers in this role in education. Consider the same group of topics given in item A (1) above.
   2. Analyze your own preparation in terms of the structure you have proposed in B (1). Conclude with a statement in parallel columns of your own strengths and deficiencies for such work.

   2. The following is a list of special abilities required for effective school counseling. It was prepared by a group of school administrators.
a. Skill in dealing with people (including children).
b. Skill in giving and interpreting tests.
c. Ability to command the respect and the confidence of the counselee.
d. Skill in interviewing.
   (1) Ability to establish good rapport with counselee.
   (2) Ability to assist him to clarify his thinking.
   (3) Ability to assist him to gain insight into his problem.
   (4) Ability to help him appraise his assets and limitations in the light

of pertinent accumulated data, to set a suitable goal for himself, and to lay out a workable plan for its attainment.

e. Skill in detecting personal characteristics and interpreting them in terms of counselee's personal adjustment.

f. Good sense and the ability to face any situation calmly and without evidence of shock.

g. Ability to develop and maintain good personnel records and to interpret them clearly and judiciously to teachers, administrators, parents, and pupils.

h. Ability to develop and lead good pupil-study conferences.

Criticize this statement. Are important abilities omitted? Are the statements too general in nature? Can you state item e. in operational terms? Which of these abilities require experience for development? Rate yourself informally on this pattern of ability demands.

3. Discuss this frequently heard statement: "All school counselors should have had successful teaching experience before appointment." Prepare lists of the arguments for and against this proposition.

4. Other frequently heard statements, contrasting with the statement above, are: "The counselor should be a calm, stable, conflict-free personality." "The counselor is more effective if he has experienced deep emotional problems in his own life." Which side of this argument would you take? Why?

5. The following list includes recognized instruments and techniques which are being used by guidance workers. In column 1 below, check only those items in which you have had sufficient training to become competent. For example, competence in the area of group intelligence testing means that you can administer, score, and interpret the results with confidence and accuracy. Check only column 1 below for this question. Note question 6 before checking column 2.

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COLUMN 1   COLUMN 2

a. ——   Group Standardized Tests   ——
b. ——   Case Study Techniques   ——
c. ——   Case Conference Techniques   ——
d. ——   Nondirective Interviewing   ——
e. ——   Advising Students   ——
f. ——   Test Construction   ——
g. ——   Test Interpretation   ——
h. ——   Psychodrama and/or Sociodrama   ——
i. ——   Remedial Reading Techniques   ——
j. ——   Revised Stanford-Binet   ——
k. ——   Wechsler-Bellevue   ——
l. ——   Projective Techniques   ——
m. ——   Speech-correction Techniques   ——
n. ——   Study Skills   ——
o. ——   Parent Conferences   ——
p. ——   Faculty Conferences   ——
q. ——   Use of Occupational Information   ——
r. ——   Research Techniques   ——
s. ——   Group Guidance   ——
t. ——   In-service Training Techniques   ——
u. ——   Others (specify)   ——

6. In the light of your experience as a guidance worker, check in column 2 above those instruments or techniques in which you would insist upon receiving training if you were beginning your counselor training again. Base your judgments on your needs for such skills.

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New Directions in Guidance

SOME UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

TECHNIQUES: REFINEMENT AND APPLICATION

AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY AND RESEARCH

SUMMARY

SOME PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

GUIDANCE WORKERS in American schools have made truly important progress in the last forty years. They have invented and put to use many instruments and techniques, explored various organizational and operational patterns, and—perhaps most important of all—established the principle that guidance is a necessary part of an educational program. Few contemporary school systems fail to give at least lip service to guidance objectives. These objectives are ambitious; they are included in the essential task of counseling and of the educative process of which counseling is a part—the task of enhancing personal growth and development. These objectives are an expression of our cherished democratic ideals of child-rearing and education. The aim of the counselor is to assist the development

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of *all* individuals: counseling is not a service planned especially for deviants; rather it is intended to be potentially helpful to every member of our society. Guidance workers believe that the counseling process—the implementation of more effective interpersonal relationships and the various techniques of assessment and communication—can play a crucial role in facilitating the finest possible personal growth for all people.

A large part of our population, though functioning relatively well now, has the potential ability to achieve better adjustment; for these individuals, counseling is especially promising. Counseling stresses the positive and the preventive; by improving and maintaining mental health, it can often forestall psychological disability: discovering and facing problems is a prerequisite to solving them, and the counselor who helps young people to gain insight into their personal limitations and to appreciate their special strengths is truly helping them to healthy self-reliance and serenity. Even by merely lending a sympathetic ear to tales of woe, a counselor provides young people with some vital release for tensions; and providing vocational information may actually, in the long run, safeguard mental health by enabling an individual to bring himself to relinquish a cherished but unrealistic professional aspiration that would have led to frustration and failure.

The potential value of counseling, however, is not appreciated by the general public; in fact, this is a period in which many phases of public-school activity are undergoing critical scrutiny all over the nation. Parents and taxpayers are asking what the schools are doing and why. The public is not satisfied with laboratory findings in small, isolated situations but wants knowledge of total school programs in their community settings. Guidance services are not being overlooked in this examination but are being subjected to evaluation by such criteria as: What are the purposes of the program? Are they being achieved? Are they worth the cost? Cooperative committees of lay and professional people are seeking answers to these questions.

Some Unsolved Problems

Counseling has not, of course, reached anything like a state of perfection. Many problems are yet to be solved in the development of guidance services. It is impossible in a brief statement to present all the unresolved problems which prevent the full achievement of the objectives of guidance, but a few of the major issues, which represent focal points for continuing research, are presented below.

offices and other guidance-service facilities will be provided in this vast program?

Most school systems, of course, do aspire to the development of an adequate guidance program; but the data so far available do not permit the establishment of standards in either the area of personnel or the area of space requirements. School administrators and boards of education need help in identifying the specifics which constitute an adequate program. The solution to this problem requires keeping complete records, thorough evaluation, and more effective reporting of the findings of guidance studies in the general literature of educational research.

Problems of Professional Relationships

This century has seen great advances in the field of the behavioral sciences, especially in psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, psychiatry, and the social sciences. Trained practitioners are now arising within all these disciplines; and, in a general sense, workers in all these fields accept the basic objectives of the guidance specialist. The very fact that representatives of various disciplines are working toward the same objectives and that all are dealing with human beings—with children, adults, and family units—leads to ever-increasing sensitiveness to problems of interrelationships and to keener perception of possible solutions. Research dealing with people, both as individuals and in groups, has proceeded apace, and new fields for the practitioner in human relations have been developed.

Clear-cut definitions of professional objectives have not yet been established by these various disciplines. The school counselor works with and seeks to make use of the services of all of them. Even within the field of psychology itself, counseling and psychotherapy have not been clearly differentiated, although attempts have been made to distinguish between their objectives on the basis of the intensity of the client's problem. Psychotherapy has been identified by some with the development of therapeutic processes for working with the seriously disturbed patient, whereas counseling has been more closely identified with evolving processes for meeting the guidance needs of the normal person. Psychiatry, in its various areas of specialization, deals with both normal and severely disturbed clients. Similarly, the practicing sociologist is concerned with both normal and deviant persons through his interest in group behavior, in mores, and in value systems.

Perhaps a few examples will help to distinguish these disciplines from one another. Some of the types of treatment used in psychotherapy are electric shock, insulin shock, and depth analysis. Psychiatry, in dealing

with the severely disturbed, may employ the same methods; in dealing with the "normal" patient—the individual suffering from anxiety and tension—psychiatry often uses counseling methods. The sociologist and the anthropologist are of vital service in explaining to the practitioner the value systems which hold for particular patients; children in slum areas, for example, are apt to believe that fighting is not misbehavior: a fellow has to stand up for his rights; in more privileged neighborhoods, speeding in hot-rods and drinking beer are considered acceptable behavior by adolescents, and the counselor who condemns such behavior may fail to establish rapport with a client.

The relationship of these special fields needs further clarification. A clue to the ways in which they cooperate is offered by the pattern of development in the medical sciences: medical practice, out of its long history of experimentation, has developed the clinic, in which a variety of specialists participate in the examination and diagnosis of a patient's condition, but responsibility for the integration of the whole process is usually placed in the hands of one practitioner. In other words, each specialist makes his own unique contribution, yet the basic therapeutic relationship with the patient remains the responsibility of one person.

This goal has not yet been achieved among the social scientists; too often the social worker proceeds in one direction, the psychologist in another, and the teacher in still another, so that no one practitioner helps the client to see the situation as a whole, although the process of assistance for a client demands a fusion of the work of all. This confusion among the various special fields is a definite professional problem. Its solution will require further experimentation, further agreement on common objectives, the establishment of relationships among various professional associations and groups, and clear-cut patterns of referral and communication.[3]

Problems of Relationships with Parents

The establishment of effective working relationships with parents remains a perplexing educational and guidance problem. Currently, the parents of children in their first few years of school keep in close contact with the teacher and with the children's progress; in fact, at the elementary-school level, the program of parent-teacher conferences, parent observation, and the maintenance of close parent ties with the school has furthered guidance efforts.

[3] Arthur H. Brayfield, *Readings in Modern Methods of Counseling*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950, Chapter 3.

As pupils reach mid-school years, however, this helpful relationship tends to break down; its deterioration is unfortunate, for it is during these adolescent years that students meet new problems and, in many cases, face for the first time dilemmas of evaluation and decision. During this phase of their growth, young people have especially urgent need of parental support and understanding; often definite family planning is required. It is unrealistic, for example, for a school counselor to plan with a ninth-grade student an educational program and a vocational objective which extends through four years of high school and possibly four to six years of college without the close collaboration and support of the parents; yet, this kind of one-sided planning occurs all too frequently. Its weaknesses are, of course, obvious: encouraging a youngster to plan for a career as a concert pianist when his parents want him to enter the family business because the father is in bad health is simply to court disappointment, for the family may lack both interest and economic means to further such an ambition. To help a pupil in planning a college program when it will be necessary for him to go to work to support an aging mother as soon as he is out of high school is, similarly, to ignore distressing realties in the situation.

This problem of unrealistic planning for young people has many aspects. In some cases the parents themselves are at fault; since it is not customary for parents to visit the secondary school or to participate extensively in its program, teachers and counselors feel that parents are not interested. Parents, for their part, report that they do not feel welcome in the school—that the student feels that if the parent is invited for a conference, some kind of negative report on his behavior is imminent. This concept, unfortunately, is fostered by many school practices. Parents are ordinarily called in by the school only when a student is doing unsatisfactory work or is a behavior problem. Specific "warning" notices of failing performance are sent home at marking periods. Instances of negative behavior, failure, tardiness, absence, rudeness, aggression, and insubordination are made the basis of contact. Parents are too seldom invited in to hear reports of outstanding achievement or leadership experiences and other specific evidence of the desirable growth and development of their children.

A new approach to the recognition of mutual responsibility is needed. A definitive plan for effective working relationships between parents and teachers should be established, especially for secondary schools. Steps in the right direction are: improved communication between home and school, more frequent use of parent-teacher-counselor conferences, wider use of student-parent committees, "back-to-school" events in which parents visit and go through the daily schedule (in short periods) of their children, and so on. Teachers and counselors need to meet parents on common

grounds and with sharing attitudes. The question to bear in mind in such a meeting is not "What shall I tell about this boy?" but rather "What more can I learn about this boy and his needs?" With this attitude, the participants can build working relationships.

Techniques: Refinement and Application

Increasingly successful guidance must depend upon the development of progressively more effective techniques of assessment, diagnosis, and treatment. Improved techniques come from research and practice. Much progress in the development of counseling methods has occurred in the last ten years; since the development of the first crude mental-age scale, instruments for assessing human abilities and interests and other characteristics have been tremendously improved. Moreover, in addition to the test instruments, researchers have amassed a body of knowledge relating to the development of tests, job analyses, and other devices. Thousands of psychological tests are now available; and as they are used, research data about each of them have accumulated to the extent that there exists a large body of information about each instrument, by which users can be guided in employing it. Such data make possible more scientific administration of tests and permit more meaningful interpretation. Moreover, test instruments are being used in those areas of human characteristics, collectively called *personality*, which are less tangible and require a more subtle approach.

In spite of these developments, there remain unknown factors in the application of test findings to the assessment of individual characteristics. In many cases, tests which have good reliability still have very inadequate validity studies.[4] This inadequacy is particularly clear when the counselor tries to relate his client's test abilities not to just one field of study or occupation but to several; for example, a test like the mechanical-comprehension section of the *Differential Aptitudes Test* appears to assess abilities which are related to several school courses—physics, mechanical drawing, machine shop, and others—and to a number of occupations in the mechanical field, both at the engineering and crafts level. At the present time, validity data are available for indicating the test's relationships with school courses; data are lacking, however, for indicating the test's relationships with occupations. The test has shown value for predicting a student's success in various courses but not for predicting his success in those occupations for

[4] Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, Harper and Brothers, 1949, Chapter 20.

which the courses would seem to prepare him. For this purpose, test instruments which have known relationships to several external criteria, such as success in job performance, are needed.

Contemporary batteries of tests, which have been standardized on common populations, have been carefully studied for internal consistency; nevertheless, the counselor is apt to find that the relationships of test scores (and particularly of test profiles) with external criteria are notably lacking. Even in the rich areas of measurement of intelligence, special aptitudes, and patterns of interest, continued research is needed.

The area of personality assessment is a still less tangible field in which to work, and here research has barely pierced the surface. The instruments now available are primarily useful for research involving groups, not for individual appraisal and assessment.

Projective techniques show promise; they are already useful to the skilled clinician, and they appear to be on the threshold of development into tools helpful to the school counselor. If, however, they are to serve the major task of counseling—dealing with the adjustment problems of all young people—these tools must be understood and developed to the point where they can be utilized by people with less intensive training than clinical technicians.[5]

Much research in this area is now being done. Unfortunately, such studies are too often confined to clinics, college counseling centers, or other situations which are relatively removed from the life of the public school. Perhaps it should be stated as a guiding principle that any instrument which must be used in a general school situation should be tried out and validated in that situation. School counselors can no longer expect all developmental research to be done for them in environments quite alien to the conditions under which they themselves work. The counselors' own efforts too often fail to yield vital research findings because they usually do not maintain sufficiently insightful records, employ acceptable sampling techniques, or systematize and control their work in such a way that results can be observed and compared.

Even this is not the whole story. Better instruments and techniques are already available than are now being employed. This lag is partly due to the school policy of giving the counselor responsibility for so many young people that systematic development in the use of methods is often impossible. Also to blame is the fact that school policy has permitted counseling activities to be assigned to many individuals who are not adequately prepared for such work. Tradition and inertia also act as deterrents. Schools

[5] Harold H. Anderson and Gladys L. Anderson, *An Introduction to Projective Techniques*, Prentice-Hall, 1951.

too easily continue to do year after year what they have done before. It is actually true that some schools are still administering tests which were developed twenty-five years ago—for purposes which could be better served by other, more recent tests.

Another factor hampering the wider use of newer, better test instruments is the failure of research reports to get into the general stream of educational literature. Research publications tend to circulate among research workers, and research reporting tends to be a form of stylized writing which too often fails to communicate its meaning to many users of the very instruments on which the reported studies are based. The fault here lies with both writer and reader: on the one hand, greater effort needs to be made to prepare research reports in such a style and form that they will be meaningful to guidance workers; on the other hand, counselors should acquire in their training the necessary knowledge to enable them to make use of the professional literature.

Perhaps these statements regarding the development of techniques and their application can be summarized by saying that there remains a broad gap between theory and practice, between research and its actual use in the field. The working counselor requires continuously improved tools and techniques; specialists and research workers require outlets for their skills and their products. In the guidance movement there are many able people in both these categories. The problem is to get them together. One way of doing this, of course, is to take research out of the laboratory. Studies are needed at the operating level, primarily field studies in actual school situations.

Beyond assessment, diagnosis and understanding of individual behavior, lies the problem of treatment—the *adjustive* function of the guidance program, which is the basic purpose of the whole process. In this area, too, further research, careful description, and pilot studies are urgently needed.

School counselors in general tend to rely on an environmental approach to treatment. They gather data, administer tests, hold information-getting interviews, and develop case studies which provide them with understanding and hunches as to the nature of an individual's problem. Then they attempt to help the client solve his difficulty by interpreting the gathered data with the teachers, parents, and others with whom the pupil must interact. Counselors also make use of procedures for modifying the client's environment—changing his school courses or his student activities, or placing him on a part-school and part-work program. Essentially, this is a process of treating symptoms; while it is not to be condemned, it should be understood as incomplete.

Another common approach to treatment is through the use of simple

catharsis. In many schools the counselor serves as a good listener for the student with a problem. This is, in general, a useful counseling technique but an incomplete approach to dealing with an individual's problems.

A third approach to treatment, frequently encountered in college counseling centers—usually staffed by counseling or clinical psychologists—is through the instigation of a program of psychotherapy. This generally involves a long series of interview contacts and is aimed at helping the individual to understand himself and to develop the ability to deal with his problems. This process is based on the assumption that the client has sufficient independence and control of his own environment to deal with it effectively; however, it is doubtful that this assumption holds for students in the secondary school, and certainly it does not hold for pupils in elementary school. Yet, this process of psychotherapy, aimed at helping the individual to restructure his own personality patterns, is an important and necessary counseling technique.

These three adjustive processes are seldom integrated in school guidance practices. It seems, therefore, that a general need throughout the guidance field is—to borrow a term from psychiatry—a "total push" program; and this involves, at the school level, the integration of guidance, curriculum, and administration. In such a program it is recognized that the teacher who deals with the child almost every day is a key figure in his environment, and that daily classroom practices seriously affect the child's adjustment and development. In an integrated program, the teacher must act as the first-line observer and provider of developmental experiences. The counselor must act as a specialist in securing and interpreting the data which lead to better understanding of the individual and in providing the teacher with this information in meaningful terms. The counselor also must continue to work with the client in modifying his environment and in providing opportunities for release of feelings, for talking out and thinking through problems in a confidential setting, and for continuing psychotherapy when and where it is needed. In such a setting, teacher and counselor work together, sharing information, understandings, and enlightened hypotheses. The school administration must contribute by providing adequate personnel (both in quantity and quality), facilities, community support, and flexibility for the development of a school program which moves progressively toward meeting the needs of students.

Such a program as is here envisioned is not unattainable. Many parts of it have already been explored and tested and are now in operation. What is needed is a fusion of these parts into an integrated whole. Here, too, is an important area of research: pilot studies of an over-all program involving all three of the major adjustive processes in a sensitively functioning whole.

Areas for Further Study and Research

It is against the background of the unsolved problems in the field of guidance that the following field studies and investigations are proposed. Many of these research projects could be carried on as part of an operating program by the people who will actually apply the results. Within the broad areas suggested there are many specific research questions, but caution must be used in refining field-study questions into specific research questions—children's lives, taxpayers' dollars, and counselors' jobs are being weighed in the context of a program, not of a technique.[6]

1. YOUTH PROBLEMS AND NEEDS. The needs of children vary in time and place. This is a continuing problem for each school and community. Both verbally expressed and manifested needs require discovery and examination, and current studies tend to emphasize only children's own statements of problems.

What do parents think? What do teachers observe? What do other adults observe? What are the residuals when all views are brought together?

2. EVALUATION OF GROUP PROGRAMS. Individual guidance services are expensive and are unavailable in many schools. Which of the needs found in Problem Area 1 can be effectively served by planned group activities? Are group methods more effective in achieving some guidance objectives than are individual methods?

3. NEED FOR INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE. Most full-time counselors in American schools have case loads in excess of 600 during the school year. This is an impossible load. How should the school guidance worker determine which pupils need individual attention? Should he depend on teacher referral, pupil initiative, or parental pressure? Are there screening techniques which will identify those who need individual attention?

4. BUILDING PUBLIC SUPPORT FOR GUIDANCE. Many school guidance programs are hampered by lack of public understanding and support. How are these attitudes expressed?

What kind of program do patrons really want? What kinds of communication and public relations are effective? Does the work of joint lay-professional committees offer promise?

5. GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. Few studies are available in this area; in fact, few schools have even initiated organized

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[6] Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, *Research Methods in Social Relations*, Dryden Press, 1951.

programs at this level. Yet, it is generally agreed that early identification of a problem increases the likelihood of effective treatment. Surveys of current practices are needed, including careful follow-up studies.

How can specialists serve the teacher, who is the key person in the elementary school?

Pilot programs, well organized and staffed, should be developed, given time to operate, and evaluated.

6. CURRENT SERVICES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL. In spite of the many surveys of guidance procedures, not enough is known of what the secondary-school counselor actually does.

Does he interview individually all of his charges? How frequently? About what? What does he say? What is the nature of relationships experienced? How does he "serve" teachers? What are his relationships with parents?

Careful longitudinal studies are needed, involving accurate records, diaries, recorded interviews, and participant-observer techniques. The effects or results of the counseling program cannot be separated from the process itself.

7. EFFECTIVENESS OF COUNSELOR-TRAINING PROGRAMS. Great variations exist among counselor-training programs: some stress thorough knowledge of the occupational world; others give emphasis to the school program and insist on teacher-training and experience. Counselor-training programs in psychology departments are divided into those which insist on a thorough grounding in research methodology and those which emphasize a personal therapeutic experience.

Which is most effective training for dealing with the kinds of problems school counselors face? Is there a "best" combination? Or does the training required depend upon the individual?

8. COST FACTORS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES. Significant improvement in any aspect of public education requires long-range planning, public support, and budgeting. Guidance workers have been notably deficient in supplying school administrators and boards of education with the data needed for planning increased and improved programs.

What are the building-space requirements for counseling? For testing? For maintaining adequate records? What are desirable unit personnel requirements? What are the needed clerical-services and materials requirements?

What proportion of total school expenditures should be budgeted for guidance services? Can tentative but workable cost estimates be developed for various types of guidance programs?

Progress in the years ahead depends on solid budgetary planning as well as on experimentation and concept development.

Summary

Although guidance services have made impressive progress in the last half-century, many problems remain to be solved. *Problems in clarifying responsibilities* involve such issues as identifying practitioners competent to handle the various serious duties of the task. *Problems of educational policy* are exemplified by the fact that far too many schools minimize the importance of trained guidance workers, with the result that the mental-hygiene aspects of the school program are unappreciated and unrecognized. Even in schools in which the importance of striving for optimum mental health is recognized, money may not be budgeted for the purpose and the program may remain rudimentary. *Problems of professional relationships* involve the areas of responsibility of the many specialists within the broad realm of mental health—psychiatrist, social worker, psychometrist, sociologist, anthropologist, and so on. *Problems of relationships with parents* involve unreal aspirations for their children, belief that they are unwelcome in the school, and others. *Problems of refining old techniques and developing new ones* exist in the area of aptitude tests, for example, and of projective techniques. In part, of course, this is a problem of closing the gap between theory and practice.

Further research should be focused on such areas as youth problems and needs, evaluation of group programs, need for individual guidance, building public support for guidance, guidance services in the elementary school, improving current services in the secondary school, raising the level of effectiveness of counselor-training programs, and study of the cost factors in guidance services. The field is great, of course, and young; and each guidance worker can suggest still other aspects of the task which need to be further explored and refined.

It is appropriate for this overview of guidance services to end on a positive note. Much progress has been achieved in a relatively short time. The programs of guidance services which have been described here have largely developed in less than forty years. They are real and they are operating. They are staffed by sincere, dedicated people who are willing to question themselves, willing constantly to examine their work in terms of the changing needs of children and youth. This is the spirit of evaluation—and evaluation is the way to progress.

SOME PROBLEMS

1. If you were to choose one word to describe your concept of a counselor's role, what would it be? What one word best describes your role as you now perform?

2. Defend what you consider a minimal preparation for competent counselors.

3. Contrast counseling as an art with counseling as a science. Which aspect do you consider of greater importance?

4. You have been given responsibility for hiring five full-time counselors for High School X. What choices would you make with regard to age, sex, education, background, experience in subject-matter fields, experience in teaching religion, university affiliations, honors held, experience outside the field of education?

5. If a specialist were invited in to evaluate your guidance services, what do you predict would be listed as your strengths? As your weaknesses?

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[Part Six]

FOUR APPENDIXES

· A ·

Suggested Self-test Items for Review, Study Guide, and Discussion

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Part 1: True-False

The following statements are either largely true or largely false. Encircle the appropriate response.

T F   1. Every teacher has guidance responsibilities.

T F   2. In guidance, emphasis is placed on helping teachers to understand the etiology of child problems.

T F   3. Treatment techniques are less well developed than diagnostic techniques.

T F   4. Parents and teachers should give children opportunities to bring anxieties out into the open.

T F   5. A permissive atmosphere should pervade the classroom.

T F   6. "Problem children" usually come from problem homes.

T F   7. The counselor should give his major attention to the low-achiever group.

T F   8. Observation of physical factors should be a prime consideration in child study.

T F   9. Peer-group approval is less important to the child than teacher approval.

T F   10. Sociometric findings should be implemented in seating and grouping.

T F 11. Group discussion of human relations should not be undertaken in the elementary school.

T F 12. Aggressive behavior within limits is a less serious threat to personality development than most teachers admit.

T F 13. The aggressive child should never be physically restrained.

T F 14. Anger is a symptom of frustration.

T F 15. Teachers tend unwittingly to foster bullying.

T F 16. The teacher should work out and put on the board a "code of honor" for the class.

T F 17. The attention seeker should be isolated.

T F 18. "Writing out," drawing, and finger painting are effective release media for shy and withdrawing children.

T F 19. Truancy is usually the result of fear.

T F 20. Responsibility requires practice.

T F 21. Good manners should be taught directly.

T F 22. Intrafamily relationships are not the concern of the school.

T F 23. Case conferences are generally more effective if parents are not present.

T F 24. A feeling of insecurity is at the root of most childhood problems.

T F 25. "Guidance" and "counseling" are synonymous terms.

T F 26. In a behavioral anecdote, the objective description of behavior should be separated from the observer's interpretation of the behavior.

T F 27. Individual guidance takes place in a school whether or not the guidance program is organized.

T F 28. Typical cumulative record forms provide room for *some* information in all the basic areas to be considered in the appraisal of the individual.

T F 29. The school guidance program is concerned mainly with prevention rather than cure of behavior problems.

T F 30. The plan of organization of a guidance program should vary with the size of the school and the school situation.

T F 31. A good cumulative record offers both a cross-sectional and a longitudinal picture.

T F 32. Guidance programs in the elementary grades are mainly executed through individual teachers.

T F 33. The counselor should not make choices or direct decisions.

T F 34. Recognition of the importance of the individual on the part of school staffs can be credited to the vocational-guidance movement primarily.

T F 35. In general, authorities are in agreement with regard to the major principles involved in personnel work.

T F 36. An important fundamental principle of guidance is eventual self-guidance.

T F 37. Interviewing is one of the most emphasized techniques in the literature of personnel work, but according to the research evidence it is among the least well provided services in the schools.

T F 38. From the child-guidance clinic movement, teachers are learning that the pupil's problems cannot be studied apart from his home and surroundings.

T F 39. Historically, guidance was initially concerned with occupational information.

T F 40. The counseling process can hardly be called a learning experience at this point in its development.

T F 41. It is now a recognized fact that guidance, through personalized concern and attention, can adequately substitute for the deficiencies of a narrow academic program or curriculum.

T F 42. A guidance and personnel-service program in education should not be identified with instruction but should be intimately correlated with it.

T F 43. In directive counseling, more attention is given to a consideration of the past than in nondirective counseling.

T F 44. Vocational guidance is a process.

T F 45. Early guidance services in American schools were essentially psychological.

T F 46. The sociogram is an aid in identifying isolates.

T F 47. Occupational information is best handled in individual conference.

T F 48. Every teacher has a part in the guidance program.

T F 49. According to research findings, a high level of intelligence is directly related to a high occupational level in the labor force.

T F 50. Test data should not be revealed to teachers.

T F 51. Ability to do the job is the prime requisite of vocational success.

T F 52. The trend in intelligence tests is toward obtaining a profile rather than a single score.

T F 53. Broad-area evaluation of test data needs to be followed with more specific diagnosis.

T F 54. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and the Census use the same occupational classifications.

T F 55. Because of low validity and other defects, interest and personality tests should not be used by the school counselor.

T F 56. Research data on prognostic value of tests are inadequate.

T F   57. While much has been written about guidance, little research is available on the outcomes.

T F   58. Guidance services should be performed only by trained specialists in the field.

T F   59. Counseling programs should reach all students, maladjusted and "normal."

T F   60. Group methods should be used for the development of readiness for counseling.

T F   61. Ability requirements should not be used for discouragement of aspirations which are unreasonable.

T F   62. The Otis Self-administering Test is a personality test.

T F   63. The guidance services should take care of discipline problems as one of their functions.

T F   64. The lack of client follow-up has generally been a weakness of most guidance programs.

Part II: Multiple Choice

For each question select the one choice which best answers the question. Read each statement carefully, because in some questions a positive answer is indicated and in others a negative answer is proper. Check your choice.

1. Guidance is necessary in modern education because of:
a. the mass-production concept of much educational practice.
b. the fact that parents are unable to handle and control their children as well as formerly.
c. the fact that teachers can take the place of many family influences.
d. the fact that modern education is nineteenth-century in practice rather than twentieth-century and thus is not meeting student needs properly.

2. Youth studies during the past decade or so have indicated that young people feel a strong need for several kinds of guidance services. One of the following was *not* among those needed.
a. Preparation to enter the labor market.
b. Vocational guidance concerning job trends and opportunities.
c. Opportunities for social participation or leisure-time training.
d. The church as a source of effective help.

3. The present lack of agreement regarding the nature, scope, and services of personnel work is primarily responsible for:

a. preventing the widespread use of personnel services.
b. the lack of certification regulations and requirements.
c. the lack of development of more effective individual-interest and personality inventories.
d. the concept that guidance must be a central staff function rather than a teacher function in the school organization plan.

4. Guidance in schools will be ineffective and poorly performed as long as:
a. teachers and administrators are indefinite in their thinking as to the purposes of guidance and uncertain as to the need of it.
b. the federal government does not provide financial assistance for guidance services.
c. there is no psychology credential required for guidance workers.
d. the counseling emphasis is upon either nondirective or directive techniques to the exclusion of the other.

5. The term "personnel work" has always been used and still is used customarily to designate or describe guidance work done at the:
a. elementary level.
b. junior-high-school level.
c. high-school level.
d. college level.

6. Although many reasons are given for the school's failure to collect and record all the data needed about students, the real reason is likely to be:
a. lack of time.
b. lack of personnel.
c. lack of equipment.
d. inertia.

7. Most authorities feel that guidance, from a practical viewpoint, can be best performed through:
a. the classroom teacher.
b. a staff of specialists.
c. a Director of Guidance who utilizes in-service training.
d. a combination of all three.

8. Several disadvantages result from the "teacher-is-the-personnel-worker" plan. Which one of the following is *not* considered to be a disadvantage?
a. Lack of training.
b. Financial expenditure.
c. Overwork.
d. Subject-matter consciousness.

9. One outstanding event which made many high schools aware of the inadequacies of their records was:
a. World War II.
b. the depression era of the early 'thirties.
c. the development of state-wide apprenticeship training.
d. the development of occupational-information research work.

10. Information pertinent for guidance work which is most readily available in the average school is that related to the:
a. social-environment data of the individual.

b. work-experience record of the individual.
c. achievement record of the individual.
d. special aptitudes possessed by the individual.

11. A work-experience program developed in the school provides several advantages. Which of the following is *not* a particular advantage from a guidance point of view?

a. It has good vocational-guidance value.
b. It provides actual exploratory experiences.
c. It causes the school to become less academically oriented.
d. It provides the students with a good steady income at a particularly appropriate time.

12. Not all guidance workers agree wholeheartedly concerning the following personnel concepts. Which one is the subject of most disagreement?

a. The philosophy behind guidance work is as old as education itself.
b. The group is more important than the individual in a democracy.
c. Personnel work is concerned with the whole student.
d. Personnel work implies counsel but not compulsion.

13. The vocational-guidance movement has contributed to the personnel program through the development of:

a. organized guidance and systematic counseling.
b. case studies and case conferences.
c. systematic counseling and the study of individual differences.
d. analytical tools and parent relationships.

14. One of the basic tenets of the guidance or personnel point of view is the:
a. belief that normal or average students are relatively free from maladjustment.
b. recognition of the significance of individual differences.
c. recognition that technological changes have affected rural youth more than urban youth.
d. belief in the need for cooperative action for democratic living.

15. Projective techniques have a specific place in guidance work for several reasons. Authorities are in general agreement that one of the following reasons is of much less significance than the others.

a. Ready clarification of the needs and purposes of the individual.
b. Easy appraisal of general or specific attainments.
c. Measurement of the whole person rather than a specific part.
d. Provision of a less structured evaluation of the individual.

16. The case conference is one of the most valuable guidance techniques. All but one of the following are recognized advantages obtained through its use.

a. It makes possible the synthesizing and interpreting of collected data.

b. It enables teachers to gain a richer and more appreciative understanding of the person.

c. It causes diagnosis and prognosis to be subject to fewer errors as a result of group participation rather than individual analysis.

d. It prevents overanalysis of the individual into separate parts for study.

17. A basic principle in counseling work emphasizes the need for:

a. reassuring and encouraging students.

b. exhorting and advising students.

c. listening and providing a permissive atmosphere.

d. developing an adequate cumulative record for personal data.

18. One of the greatest advantages of part-time work for high-school students is the:

a. financial reimbursement involved.

b. exploratory experiences gained.

c. acquaintance with the executives in charge of the plant.

d. recognition of the value of all work.

19. In developing an evaluation study of a specific school program, the initial step must be to:

a. obtain sufficient funds with which to operate.

b. develop an adequate questionnaire.

c. develop pertinent objectives.

d. obtain widespread community cooperation.

20. The counselor:

a. solves students' problems.

b. assists students in solving their own problems.

c. tells the students what is the best plan to follow.

d. offers no suggestions toward the solution of the problem.

21. A cross-sectional study is:

a. a study of the individual.

b. a study of the averages of individuals taken over a period of years.

c. a study based on the average achievements of large groups.

d. a study of an individual for one year.

22. For guidance services to be most effective, they should be offered:

a. to all high-school students.

b. extensively during the last year of high school.

c. throughout the student's school life.

d. whenever the student first shows indication of some maladjustment.

23. The traditional high school often fails to give individual attention to:

a. the average student doing average work.

b. the gifted student doing average work.

c. the dull student who is failing.

d. the average student doing superior work.

24. For the counselor, the greatest value of a well-kept system of student-personnel records lies in the fact that:

a. it provides a summary of test results for each student.

b. it provides proof of effective guidance practices.

c. it tends to prevent the student from rationalizing his present views.

d. it provides a source of anecdotal material which the counselor can use in advising students who have problems similar to those found in the records.

e. it enables the counselor to relate a present problem to the whole developmental history of the individual.

25. The anecdotal report is essentially:

a. a cursory case history.

b. an interpretation of a behavior situation.

c. a description of a behavior situation.

d. a resumé of clinical conclusions.

26. In comparison with the directive counselor the nondirective counselor tends to:

a. do more talking in the interview.

b. respond more often to students' attitudes.

c. give the student more interpretation of his behavior.

d. advise the student on a definite plan of action.

e. emphasize the content of the student's remarks.

27. If a student asks you what he has to do to become a lawyer, the first thing to do is:

a. attempt to determine his suitability for law.

b. consult his parents to determine their attitude toward his interest in law.

c. hand the student an occupational pamphlet on careers in law.

d. encourage the student to discuss the matter freely with you.

28. The student most likely to profit from a counseling interview is the one who comes:

a. by parental request.

b. on his own initiative.

c. by suggestion of a friend.

d. on invitation of the principal.

29. The best answer to give a student who says in an interview, "My father never has wanted me . . ." is:

a. "You're not alone—many other students I've seen have been faced with this same problem."

b. "Perhaps the situation isn't as bad as you think it is."

c. "You feel that your father doesn't understand you as you really are."

d. "You feel that your father would be happier if you weren't a part of the family."

e. "Tell me why you feel this way."

30. The effectiveness of the counseling interview is most dependent upon:
a. self insight of the counselor.
b. the skill with which the interview has been terminated.
c. the relationship between the counselor and the client.
d. the care with which data has been gathered.

31. *Rapport* is:
a. a moralizing or critical attitude on the part of the counselor.
b. the therapeutic value of an interview.
c. the mutual feeling of confidence between counselor and client.
d. a method of opening the interview.

32. An interview may be most comprehensively described as:
a. a conversation with a purpose.　　c. conversation for obtaining facts.
b. any conversation.　　d. conversation for inducing therapy.

33. Nondirective counseling techniques are characterized by:
a. intellectual interpretation.
b. permissiveness in regard to expression of feeling.
c. exhortation.
d. constant reassurance.

34. Mr. Gillespie is the counselor of Brown High School. His twenty years of experience in teaching, in business, and in industry have been extremely varied. He listens to the stories of his clients and then prescribes a course of action. Usually the interviews last twenty minutes. The client talks the first five or ten minutes and Mr. Gillespie talks the rest of the time. The principal and many parents think that Mr. Gillespie is a wonderful counselor. Which of the following conclusions applies to this situation?
a. Most counselors have to do this sort of counseling at one time or another.
b. If the principal and parents want this type of counseling, the counselor should provide it.
c. If he can spend only twenty minutes with the client, then something like the procedure described above is necessary.
d. This kind of counseling is considered undesirable by most experts.

35. Esther B. seems to understand the principles involved in the performance of class assignments and responsibilities. However, she becomes very nervous when supervised and makes many mistakes in actual performance. Teachers constantly complain about her work. How should this situation be handled?
a. Every time Esther makes a mistake, it should be pointed out to her and she should be told how to do things correctly.
b. It might be wise in this situation to ignore her mistakes and to commend her for anything that is done well.

c. She should be allowed to observe individuals who do things well and see how they should be done.

d. She should be given additional opportunity to practice and perfect her assignments.

36. A fundamental source for reviews and evaluations of psychological tests is the *Mental-Measurements Yearbook* series, edited by:

a. B. O. Smith
b. Edgar Burroughs
c. L. L. Thurstone
d. O. K. Buros
e. Terman and Merrill

37. Judgments regarding a person's aptitudes are necessarily expressed in:

a. absolute terms.
b. statistical certainties.
c. comparative terms.
d. arbitrary appraisals.
e. levels of confidence.

38. The validity of a test is commonly reported in terms of correlation and

a. indications.
b. specification.
c. separation.
d. reliability.
e. superannuation.

39. If Johnny's I.Q. is 56 and George's is 110 on the basis of the same test, we may say that:

a. both boys are below average on the test.
b. Johnny is probably half as bright as George.
c. George is approximately twice as bright as Johnny.
d. either b or c.
e. none of these things.

40. The scientific study of individual differences may be said to have begun with:

a. the astrologers.
b. Ebbinghaus.
c. Binet.
d. the early physiologists.
e. Bessel.

41. Which of the following is *not* a legitimate use for an achievement battery?

a. Placement in classes.
b. Improvement of instruction.
c. Vocational guidance.
d. Determination of course content.
e. Diagnosis for remedial instruction.

42. In selecting a standardized achievement battery, one should:

a. go through Buros and list appropriate tests.
b. carefully define the purposes of the testing program.
c. eliminate, if possible, tests not revised within the last five years.
d. secure specimen sets for study.
e. all of these.

43. Which test does *not* belong in this group?
a. *Terman McNemar.*
b. *A.C.E. Psychological Examination.*
c. *Wechsler-Bellevue.*
d. *California Test of Mental Maturity.*
e. *Kuhlmann-Anderson.*

44. The D.A.T. was designed for use with:
a. applicants for aviation jobs.
b. officers and enlisted men during World War II.
c. high-school students, including eighth-grade boys and girls.
d. patients diagnosed as incipient schizophrenics.
e. M.A. and Ph.D. candidates.

45. Which of the following does not belong in the group?
a. O'Rourke.
b. MacQuarrie.
c. Bell.
d. O'Connor.
e. Bennett.

46. Which of the following furnishes generally the most dependable indication of future achievement?
a. Aptitude-test results.
b. The interview.
c. Teacher ratings.
d. Opinions of parents.
e. Record of past accomplishments.

47. Personality inventories in general are valuable in guidance situations because (check one correct answer):
a. they are measures of achievement.
b. they stimulate self-evaluation.
c. they have good predictive value.
d. they have fair reliability for individual use.
e. they are easily constructed.

48. The occupational composition of the American labor force shows that one of the following trends is false.
a. Agriculture has steadily declined.
b. Professional, trade, and service industries have gone steadily up.
c. Manufacturing has declined.
d. Unskilled labor has remained stable.
e. Semiskilled trades are on the increase.

49. Adequate job classifications are found in one of the following:
a. D.O.T.
b. D.A.T.
c. U.S.A.F.I.
d. N.A.T.O.
e. T.A.T.

50. Studies of gifted children have shown that one of the following statements is not applicable to the groups studied.

a. Gifted children are average or better-than-average in health and physical development.

b. Parents of gifted children are above average in occupational and educational levels.

c. Gifted children are average or somewhat less than average in emotional adjustment.

d. Gifted children have wider breadth in both abilities and interests than normal children.

e. None of the statements above.

· B ·

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· C ·

A Counseling Interview

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The following verbatim record is presented here as an example of a counseling interview to illustrate principles discussed in Chapter 6. (Note that the abbreviations "Co" and "Cl" stand for Counselor and Client respectively; the speeches of each participant are numbered following these abbreviations.)

Co-1: Come in.

Cl-1: Hi!

Co-2: Hello there, John. How are you today?

Cl-2: Oh, pretty good.

Co-3: You look quite well. What seems to be on your mind today?

Cl-3: Gee, I don't know. The home-room teacher put a list on the board for people to go see the counselor and mine was first on the list. Here I am.

Co-4: You been in mischief lately?

Cl-4: Not that I know of. I got a mid-quarter notice but I got a good grade on the last quiz, so I think I'm all right there.

Co-5: How do you get along with your home-room teacher, John?

Cl-5: He's a lot of fun. He's been working with us in the photography club after school. He's been helping us out there. He took it over about the middle of last year.

Co-6: Seems to be a very pleasant chap, doesn't he?

Cl-6: Hm ... uh huh. He is a very nice fellow.

Co-7: Have you taken any pictures that would merit display in the corridor?

Cl-7: Well, we had that exhibit—oh, about two months ago, I think. I had a couple of pictures in there. Don't know whether you saw them or not. That one of the tree and the old farmhouse was mine.

Co-8: The one of the colored sunset? Was that one yours?

Cl-8: Well, a bunch of us worked on that one. Three of us worked together.

Co-9: Well, I thought really that film was almost good enough for *Life* or one of these magazines, John.

Cl-9: We worked pretty hard on that one because we figured taking it with colored film we'd better do a good job, and it took a prize too.

Co-10: Well, that's fine. I think it deserved it.

Cl-10: Yeah, we worked hard on it.

Co-11: There must be some reason why you are on that list. Have you any idea what it is about?

Cl-11: Well, I was just thinking—about two weeks ago they passed around a sheet for all that were seniors to sign up to talk about what we were going to do when we were through school, and I guess that might be what it is because all the other fellows on the board are graduating too.

Co-12: Um hmm, well, you're all through—you're sure that you're going to graduate? You've completed driver education, haven't you?

Cl-12: Yes, the first of last year.

Co-13: You know, one fellow came in last week and said, "Mr. Lyons, I don't think I'll get to graduate. I haven't got my grade in driver education."

Cl-13: I took that the first—regular program. You see I'll be eighteen this coming June. I'm younger than most fellows, and I got in while I was still a junior.

Co-14: If I've looked at your records correctly, John, your studies have been pretty good. What have you had the greatest difficulty in?

Cl-14: I have most trouble in math. That's one of the subjects I like the best, but I don't seem to get it very well.

Co-15: How did you do in elementary school, or didn't you like your teachers there?

Cl-15: No, I liked it pretty well there. I never got any good grades. I just sort of got by—I guess I was just mean. There was a substitute teacher and he seemed to be sort of grouchy all the time.

Co-16: Maybe he had a problem.

Cl-16: Might be. I was just talking the other night to my Dad. We were sitting around watching television, and he asked me what I was going to do when I got out of school, and I said, "Gee, I don't know." And he said, "How'd you like to go to college?" It sort of sneaked up on me—when you go to school, then all of a sudden—bang, you're out.

Co-17: Yes, that happens to all of us.

Co-18: John, where do you intend to go to college?

Cl-18: Well, I've just been thinking about that. Up until this year, my Dad was working in the shoe store downtown as just a clerk, and while he didn't figure—well, we didn't have enough money to send me to college, so when I started in high school I took a commercial course all through school—bookkeeping, typing, shorthand, and that stuff, and just the first

of the year in January, he got promoted to manager of the store with a pretty good raise in pay.

Co-19: Well, that's fine.

Cl-19: Looks like I might be able to go now, but I'm kind of worried, cause—well, heck, all these other fellows had what they call a college-preparatory course. I haven't had any of that.

Co-20: Well, you know, John, many of the colleges now are using a much more flexible schedule. They have a much wider field of selection than they used to. You have a good personality, John. You're well coordinated. You have more than normal intelligence. You grasp things quite readily. Some of your grades are not the best in the world, but at least they're good enough that you won't have any trouble getting into college. Now let's take a look, John, at the long run. What would you like to do?

Cl-20: Well, I always thought I'd—I was always thinking about college but never thought I'd get the chance—but I'd like to be an engineer or an architect or something like that. I like to build scale models and stuff like that, and I thought maybe engineering—but Mr. Smith, my home-room teacher, said there would be an awful lot of mathematics to that kind of stuff.

Co-21: Yes, that's true, John.

Cl-21: I see.

Co-22: What would your Dad like you to do?

Cl-22: Well, he said he didn't care too much. He said after we had this talk, "How'd you like to go to college?" I said, "Sure." I thought he was kidding but he wasn't. And then, later on, when I talked to him, I said, "Well, what would I study in college?" and he said, "Well, that would be up to you."

Co-23: What does your Mother think of this situation, John?

Cl-23: Usually the three of us sort of make these decisions on our own, and when my Dad and I were talking about this she didn't have much to say. Well, it made me feel kind of funny, because usually when she thinks one way about something, she will say so.

Co-24: In other words, you're pretty close together, the three of you?

Cl-24: Yeah, I have no brothers or sisters, and we always go camping in the summer and stuff like that on my Dad's vacation. And we sort of work it like a regular company, everybody has a say-so—all talk things over and make a decision on the basis of what everybody thinks.

Co-25: Well, she didn't say she didn't want you to go to college, did she?

Cl-25: No, she didn't come out and say that; she sort of side-stepped and said "Well, that's up to you." I guess it was nothing. It made me feel funny at the time because she didn't say one way or the other.

Co-26: Uh huh.

Cl-26: And then something my Dad said made me feel kind of funny. When we were talking about it, he said he'd never had a chance to go to college—

he just got out of high school and had to go to work. He said he'd sort of like me to have the opportunity he didn't have. I don't know if it's anything, but it sort of makes you feel kind of funny like you're trying to be better than your Dad. I just thought a lot about it that night. But he hasn't mentioned it again though. Seems like he wants me to go.

Co-27: John, don't you think that perhaps almost every father would like his son to do as well or perhaps a little better than he?

Cl-27: Yeah, I guess so. Sort of makes you feel funny, though. 'Cause, heck, if being a shoe clerk is good enough for my Dad, it ought to be good enough for me.

Co-28: John, if we all believed that, there wouldn't be a great deal of advancement. We'd be back in the eighteenth century, wouldn't we?

Cl-28: Well, I guess that's right. A lot of them come up. Some of the fellows that worked in the coal mines would be doctors and all that. I never gave it much thought. I guess that's right, though. I know he'd want me to, though; he's all fired up about this.

Co-29: What would you think of the idea of showing some of these folders to your Mother on colleges and the advantages. Many of these colleges put out a very attractive statement of what they have and what they can do for the youth of our nation.

Cl-29: Gee, that might help. Cause she doesn't know too much about it. She didn't go to college either. And that might help to show her what they do there and that might sort of bring her around. She thinks, well—we talked about this before we talked about going to college, really—she doesn't want to see me go in the Army. My cousin went in the Army and my aunt raised a big fuss when he went and, heck, he's stayed in the States ever since. He never did go overseas. And so my mother got worried and she thought maybe if I would get a job in a defense plant or something I wouldn't have to go in the Army.

Co-30: You know that if you're in the upper half of your class in college you're pretty well exempted from the draft. That's just a little more incentive to work.

Cl-30: You mean, for the first year?

Co-31: Uh huh.

Cl-31: I was wondering about that. I thought, heck, if I was eighteen in another month, if I just got started in school and then got drafted, that wouldn't be so good.

Co-32: Well, we all have disappointments and we all have problems, John, but it would seem to me, at the moment at any rate from the brief talk that we've had on this, that your Mother and Dad are both, should we say, worried a little bit about what the future holds. Of course, they want the best for you. Your Dad wants you to go to college, your Mother's not so sure. She doesn't want you drafted. You—well, what do you think of it, John?

Cl-32: I don't mind going in the Army because I sort of think, well, it would be a lot of fun. I wouldn't like to go overseas or be shot up or anything, but I think meeting all the fellows, and that, might be pretty good. And yet if I did get a start in school, I'd sort of like to stay in and finish up. That's why I thought before we talked about going to college that I'd get a job where it wasn't something I liked doing too well and then when I got drafted I wouldn't mind giving it up. Just something 'til I got drafted.

Co-33: Well, of course you could do that but—this business of going to college and being in the upper half of your class, as I said before, would pretty well assure you that you wouldn't be drafted, but we can't be sure of everything or anything in this life; we could be attacked by some foreign power tomorrow. But, at any rate, it would seem that you have a better chance of doing something you really like if you got into college and got that extra training. We have no assurance that any of us will be where we are.

Cl-33: Yeah, that's right. Well, one other thing. Mr. Smith was talking about— said some kind of test would tell you how you would do in college.

Co-34: Yes, we have a battery of very excellent tests, John. I'm glad you brought that up, because if you're interested in those, I'm sure we can run through a battery of these tests and find out at least what your interests probably would be and what your abilities are—where they lie.

Cl-34: I took one last year, or the whole class took it. It was one of these—it was a book with a bunch of pages, one shorter than the other, and you stick a pin through it. I came out pretty high in computational so I thought maybe that it was just that I wasn't applying myself in math. But this test came out real good. I was 'way up at the top in that.

Co-35: What was that? The Kuder? Do you recall?

Cl-35: Well, I don't know, you just stuck this pin through the paper and then you gave them back the answer sheets. It was a green book.

Co-36: We have a number of them, John. We have interest tests—now, I don't like the word test; all it really does is tell us what your possibilities might be along various lines and what your interests are.

Cl-36: I see. Do they let you know how well you do on these? Like if I went to college, if I took this test, I'd know pretty well how I'd make out in school then?

Co-37: What it does is tell your potential. It doesn't tell you what you will do. You might have a potentiality of becoming president but it's the spark within you that makes the difference of whether you'll be a bricklayer or perhaps a corporation lawyer. They might both have about the same I.Q. Now, I don't care much for this business of I.Q. Sometimes that's improperly taken, and I'm not sure whether I.Q. counts too much anyway.

Cl-37: Uh huh.

Co-38: If you'd like to take some of these tests, John, we can certainly arrange for you to do that. I think we should schedule these tests, though, if you should do them, over a period of two or three days. I don't like to give a battery of them all at one time.

Cl-38: I see. Can I take those—the only time I have is the home-room period. We have a lot of activities toward the end of the school year here. I have one period in the afternoon at two o'clock.

Co-39: Uh huh.

Cl-39: How long would that take?

Co-40: Come in for an hour, let's say, 3 or 4 different times. Suppose we make up a schedule, John.

Cl-40: I can tell my home-room teacher and I'd be able to get that time out of home room to take tests.

Co-41: Don't you think it would be better to take it out of your study period, John? You can do some studying at home, can't you?

Cl-41: Yeah, I don't do as much as I should, I guess. I do about one and one-half hours a night.

Co-42: You know I rather hate to have you miss that home room because you know you can contribute a lot in that home-room period, John.

Cl-42: Yeah, I'd hate to miss it too, because we've been talking about jobs, and what people are going to do when they get out of school and all, and it's been pretty interesting so far.

Co-43: What particular thing again do you think would interest you most? You mentioned something about engineering—

Cl-43: Yeah, that's been something I've been really interested enough in to follow up on. I don't care much about that psychology and stuff like that and well—I don't have any interest in medicine or anything like that.

Co-44: What particular type of engineering? You know there are a good many types of engineering.

Cl-44: Well, this fellow down the street from us, he's a—he works for this outfit in the city. They build a lot of these office buildings—I don't know what kind of engineering they call that but he's out on a job and he handles blueprints.

Co-45: He's probably a civil engineer—where he makes surveys and makes blueprints and things of that sort.

Cl-45: Yeah, that kind of thing, building buildings and bridges, is the kind of stuff that interests me most. I don't know too much about it, but I talk to him every once in a while and he tells me what he does. Sounds like good work.

Co-46: Well, John, you know, we also have something here—what we call the *Occupational Trends Outlook*. It might interest you. It gives us a line on jobs that will continue to increase in value and the number of them that will be open, and it also gives us a line on the jobs that are going downhill. You know, as progress in science goes along there are many new jobs that open.

Cl-46: Oh, yeah.

Co-47: Certainly at the moment we're on the threshold of a new era, barring total war. There are infinite possibilities for all people your age. We might also take a look over the occupational trends.

Cl-47: Uh huh.

Co-48: If we can fit in your abilities that we can find out from your past record that we have here, we can take these records of your tests—or inventories I'd rather call them—and then fit those in, along a general path. I don't think at this moment that we ought to say that you're going to be a *civil* engineer.

Cl-48: Uh huh.

Co-49: A mechanical engineer does much the same thing. He has to have much the same preparation. A petroleum engineer is an extremely interesting thing. I one time studied to be a petroleum engineer.

Cl-49: Oh, I don't know too much about that. Do they work making gasoline?

Co-50: Well, some of them do that, but they also work locating new oil fields and work in the development of new oil fields. It's an outdoor job and very interesting.

Cl-50: Do you have any information on that?

Co-51: Yes, we have a complete breakdown on what a petroleum engineer does and what he must do to become a petroleum engineer.

Cl-51: Another thing this fellow down the street was telling me, he went to school for about seven years, I guess to college and I don't know if we have enough dough for that. Four years is about all we can afford.

Co-52: Well, you know, John, there are some scholarships available. Some of these—shall we say—wealthy and influential men want to help boys who don't have too much money. If your record is good enough to get in and you really apply yourself, it's possible that one of these scholarships might be available.

Cl-52: They pay your way to school then?

Co-53: The major portion of it, yes. This last week I know of a boy who received a $10,000 scholarship. Of course he received that as a result of a lot of work over a long period of time.

Cl-53: Yeah.

Co-54: That's certainly something to consider.

Cl-54: How do they pick those? Do you get chosen by the school or something?

Co-55: Usually it is picked by the school and by your advisor. Sometimes they come around and make a survey of the possibilities and then cut it down to one or two or three. A number of boys got them this last year.

Cl-55: They told us that before the end of the summer they were going to have people to sign up to go to the different colleges around here for a day to sort of look at 'em. Who takes the names for that?

Co-56: Well, that's put in by your home-room teacher.

Cl-56: Oh, Mr. Smith, yeah.

Co-57: And it's a pretty good idea. Most of the schools do have a visitation day

at the various colleges where you can see what is on the campus, meet some of the instructors, and look over the things that happen there. It's a fine idea, John.

Cl-57: I think I'll sign up for that because I'd sort of like to go down and look at some of the schools around here. San Jose State, Stanford, and then I guess they go up to Cal. one day.

Co-58: Yes, sometimes they do.

Cl-58: We were sort of thinking about Cal. because I was born in the state here and that's a little bit cheaper than any other school.

Co-59: Yes, your tuition is much less there. They have a good school there. They have good instructors, just as they do at San Jose State. Very excellent staff down there.

Cl-59: The only thing is if I go up there I'd have to live up there. I figure if necessary I could live at home and cut down the expenses that way.

Co-60: Yes. You live here in town, isn't that right? Well, Stanford would probably be the one you'd rather go to.

Cl-60: Yeah, I'd like to, but it's pretty steep out there. Tuition is kind of high.

Co-61: Yes, but have you looked into this business of scholarships? There are quite a few of them that are available for Stanford every year too.

Cl-61: No, I didn't check on that. Like I say, I really didn't think I was going to college until the other night.

Co-62: How are you in athletics, John?

Cl-62: Well, I was on the track team here. I made out pretty good. I was on the first string on the milers. I went out for football but I didn't have enough weight to make the team.

Co-63: You didn't play baseball?

Cl-63: No, I didn't play baseball much, just around the neighborhood. Never tried out for the team.

Co-64: Basketball?

Cl-64: No. Just at the start of spring was when I was doing most of my work. I worked picking fruit.

Co-65: Have you done anything besides picking fruit, John—summer jobs?

Cl-65: No, most of the time I just work around home. Sort of help out there and then this summer I was going to go work for my Dad. The fellow that's stock clerk down there is going to take his vacation, and I'll work then. But that will just be for the summer.

Co-66: Yes, I see. Well, have you considered getting a summer job where you might use a little of this idea of pre-engineering?

Cl-66: Well, I looked around. I went down to the California Employment Service and they didn't have much of anything for just the summer. They had a job working up here in San Francisco running a blueprinting machine. They'll train you. I thought maybe that would be kind of interesting work to see how that works.

Co-67: Well, they have a number of very interesting machines of that sort, John. There's the Van Dyke and some others. Frankly, if you can get in on

something like that, John, it would be very good. In any kind of engineering you have to know how to make blueprints and also how to read them.

Cl-67: Yeah, that's what I thought. You'd learn a lot running a machine there.

Co-68: Well, John, it would seem to me to be an excellent idea for you to go up and contact this man again and tell him you're going to college and *ask his advice* on some of the things you might get along that line to help you along this summer.

Cl-68: I think I'll take a run up there and see him.

Co-69: Well, that's fine, John. Let's start testing next Monday. And then on Thursday we'll go through and look them over, evaluate them, see where your interests lie, and perhaps we can do something that will help you a lot, John.

Cl-69: Well, that will be swell. Is there any charge on these tests?

Co-70: No, no, those tests are furnished by the school here. It's just to help you young fellows get started in the way that we hope will do you the most good.

Cl-70: Well, it's been swell talking to you, Mr. Lyons. I think we'll be able to get something worked out here after all.

Co-71: I hope so, John.

Cl-71: Well, I'll see you on Monday. Good-bye.

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Specifications for the Occupational Monograph

The following basic outline of the contents of a good occupational monograph is included here in order that the counselor may have a basis for judging the merits of the many available occupational pamphlets. This outline was prepared by the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association.[1]

I. History of the Occupation

II. Importance of the Occupation and Its Relation to Society

III. Number of Workers Engaged in Occupation (Give source of data and area covered by figures used.)
   A. Total number engaged in occupation
   B. Total males under 18, over 18
   C. Total females under 18, over 18
   D. Number of other significant groups, e.g., Negroes and others

IV. Need for Workers—Trends (Note increase or decrease in number of workers in relation to population and other occupations. Note whether there is an over- or undersupply of workers and explain. Note principal

[1] Occupational Research Section, National Vocational Guidance Association, "Contents of a Good Occupational Monograph—The Basic Outline," *Occupations*, XIX: 1 (Oct. 1940), pp. 20-23.

centers where undersupply or oversupply is especially outstanding. Summarize important trends that will affect number of workers.)

V. Duties
   A. Specific tasks performed by workers in each occupation; divisions of the work; other occupations with which this work may be combined; nature of the work; tools, machines, and material used in the performance of the work
   B. Definition of occupation
      1. As given in the law (e.g., in licensing legislation for barbers, undertakers, architects, etc.)
      2. As determined by an official organization (union, professional organization)
      3. Carefully formulated definition acceptable to those in the occupation (The definition may be found in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles,* Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., 1940.)

VI. Qualifications
   A. Sex (Opportunities for both sexes. Mention restrictions on married women, if any.)
   B. Age (State what age, if any, is required for entrance, for retirement; age qualifications preferred by employers.)
   C. Race or nationality (Restrictions regarding employment of special races or nationalities.)
   D. Other qualifications (Include special physical, mental, social, and moral qualifications. Do not include qualifications that obviously are necessary for success in any type of work. Give any information about the use of tests for employment or selection.)
   E. Special skills (Special skills essential to performance on the job.)
   F. Special tools or equipment (Any special tools or equipment essential for the performance of the job which must be supplied by the worker.)
   G. Legislation affecting occupation (Any laws regulating occupation. State if a license or certificate is necessary.)

VII. Preparation
   A. General education
      1. Necessary (State definite amount of general education that is absolutely necessary for successful performance of duties.)
      2. Desirable (State amount of general education that is desirable and whether there are any special courses of value.)
   B. Special training (Include probable cost of training.)
      1. Necessary (State definite amount of special training that is absolutely necessary for successful performance of duties.)

       2. Desirable (State amount of special training that is desirable and note special courses of value.)

       3. Training Centers

          a. Schools offering special training (List special schools preparing for this occupation—local and elsewhere.)

          b. Training on the job (Cite special plans for training on the job—apprenticeship system, classes in the plant, etc.)

          c. Others (Cite any other type of training possible.)

    C. Experience

       1. Necessary (State definite experience necessary before entering this occupation. Related experience on other types of jobs.)

       2. Desirable (State type of experience desirable before entering this occupation.)

VIII. Methods of Entering (Give any specific ways of entering occupations, such as Civil Service Examination, etc.)

    A. Use of special employment agencies (List names of agencies which specialize in placing workers.)

  IX. Length of Time Before Skill Is Attained (Include special regulations regarding union or other apprentice rules. Instruction may cover a period of one week to three months. How soon is the maximum rate of pay reached?)

   X. Advancement

    A. Line of promotion (The jobs from which and to which the worker may be promoted.)

    B. Opportunity for advancement (State difficulty or certainty of promotion and on what promotion depends.)

  XI. Related Occupations to Which Job May Lead

  XII. Earnings (Include statements of deductions for uniforms, equipment, etc., and additions because of tips, commissions, etc.)

    A. Beginning (Wage or range of wages received by beginners.)

    B. Most common (Wage or range of wages received by largest number of workers.)

    C. Maximum (Wage or range of wages received by most highly skilled workers. Give information per hour, month, or year, according to common method of payment. Reduce to weekly rate; state number of scheduled hours per week, e.g., "based on 44-hour week." Yearly—life earnings, pensions, unemployment compensation, regulation of union, of laws. Indicate whether worker would normally receive benefits of Social Security Act.)

    D. Regulations—Laws, Labor Board, union, etc.

XIII. Hours
   A. Daily
   B. Weekly
   C. Overtime (Give frequency)
   D. Irregular hours or shifts (e.g., telephone operator)
   E. Vacation (Include only if allowed with pay.)
   F. Regulations—Laws, Labor Board, union, etc.

XIV. Regularity of Employment (When occupation is regular, omit A, B, and C, and state regularity. Give reason for regularity or irregularity.)
   A. Normal months
   B. Busy months
   C. Dull months
   D. Shut-downs of plant
   E. Cyclical unemployment (Indicate number of workers employed during these various seasons. Do plants shut down entirely during dull months? What percent of the force is retained? What percent added as extra workers during busy months? Cite attempts to regularize employment and the effect of seasonal employment on the worker.)

XV. Health and Accident Hazards (Cite special health and accident risks connected with the occupations and the ways these may be guarded against. Refer to any state legislation, e.g., compensation for occupational disease, for example, which may have special bearing. Mental-health hazards should be included.)

XVI. Organizations
   A. Employers—function, purpose, size, etc.
   B. Employees—function (State activities, purpose, and strength, e.g., does union have employment bureau, benefit fund? If so, what? Cite any difficulties of entrance or especially large fees and dues. Where there are two or more unions, state size of membership of each, if possible, or other evidence of relative strength.)

XVII. Typical Places of Employment (For example, electrician may find employment in electrical repair shops; doing wiring with construction companies, with a gas and electric company, in a powerhouse, in the maintenance department of factories using electrical machinery, etc.)

XVIII. Supplementary Information
   A. Suggested readings
   B. Magazines
   C. Films
   D. Pictures
   E. Other sources of information (Governmental departments—U.S. Census Reports, U.S. Employment Service, or Bureau of Labor Statistics. List of key firms and persons who may be contacted for further information.)

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Form No. 4

BOOK CARD

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Author. Shaftel W. A.

Title. Guidance in the Modern School

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